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ABSTRACT

This work is one in a series that focuses on nine languages representing the bulk of the second language learning effort in Australian education (Arabic, Modern Standard Chinese, French, German, Modern Greek, Indonesian/Malay, Italian, Japanese, and Spanish). These languages were categorized as the Languages of Wider Teaching. This particular volume aims to describe the position of Chinese language in the various education systems in Australia, the direction and quantity of change since the introduction of the National Policy on Languages, and factors promoting and/or inhibiting expanded language teaching and study. This profile will then be set against Australia's international economic and strategic context, as well as the current dynamic situation for Chinese language usage in Australia. Recommendations are offered on how best to achieve an efficient and equitable provision of Chinese language in Australia. Appendices provide a list of references and a bibliography, language map of China, gender breakdown for primary secondary statistics of the Chinese language in Australia, and a language study questionnaire. (Contains 86 references.) (Author)

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Unlocking Australia's Language Potential

Profiles of 9 Key Languages in Australia

Vol. 2 - Chinese

FL 021 664

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Volume 2: Chinese

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The NLLIA

The National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia Limited (NLLIA) began operations in June, 1990. The Institute is largely funded by the Federal Government and is closely linked to the implementation of policies on language and literacy adopted in recent years by Federal and State governments.

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- providing professional development activities for language lecturers, teacher trainers and teachers;
- creating and operating a database/clearing house on language education issues and regularly disseminating information from these;
- facilitating and conducting research needed to improve practice in language education; and
- regularly assessing language education needs by providing advisory and consultancy services to government, unions, business and the community on relevant language issues.

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Preface

One of the consequences of the increased emphasis on language policy making from state and federal governments in recent years has been the proliferation of ways of categorising languages. The nine languages featured in these profile studies were categorised as Languages of Wider Teaching.

There are obviously other ways in which the languages could have been classified. Any one of a large number of possible categories could have been used but this particular group of nine was listed in the National Policy on Languages as languages which either already had or could reasonably be predicted to have the majority of all languages candidates in Australia.

This particular group of languages could not otherwise be classified together. They represent therefore the vast bulk of the second language learning effort in Australian education. As such these languages consume the greatest proportion of the resources devoted to the teaching of second languages in this country and will do so for several years to come.

In addition to this quantitative rationale for grouping these nine, the following rationale supported this selection:

- that language/teaching efforts are to be harmonised with Australia's economic, national and external policy goals;
- that language teaching and learning efforts are to enhance Australia's place in Asia and the Pacific and its capacity to play its role as a full and active member of world forums; and
- that, for planning purposes, resources allocation efforts and the establishment of achievable long-term goals, choices must be made on language issues. (National Policy on Languages 1987:124)

These nine were seen to combine internally orientated reasons for language study (intercultural, community bilingualism rationales) with perceived externally oriented reasons (economic and international relations rationales) with a pragmatic sense that only a selection from the very many possible languages that could be promoted, should be.

The nine languages selected were: Arabic, Modern Standard Chinese, French, German, Modern Greek, Indonesian/Malay, Italian, Japanese, and Spanish. In early 1990 the Australian Advisory Council on Languages and Multicultural Education which was charged with the responsibility for the implementation of the National Policy on Languages decided to review the teaching and place of these languages since their designation as Languages of Wider Teaching. Funding was provided under the Australian Second Language Learning Program for the conduct of profile studies of the nine.

The NLLIA was successful in its bid for these funds and co-ordinated a national project of the research teams described in the volumes. The researchers and the teams that assisted them were scattered across Australia and the co-ordination of their efforts was a major activity on its own. I wish to acknowledge the efforts of Dr. Tony Liddicoat and Mr. Athol Yates and other NLLIA staff for succeeding in this difficult task.

In addition, the NLLIA is producing a summary volume. This will present an overview of the nine language profiles and an analysis of the most interesting and revealing differences and similarities among them. This is being written by Dr. Paulin Dijité of the University of Sydney.

These studies represent more than a review of the state of play after some years of designation of these nine languages as key languages. They promise to bring about a more precise and language specific form of planning for the teaching and learning of languages in Australian education and therefore could well represent a more mature phase in policy making itself. In recent years language policies have made only generic statements about individual, or groups of, languages. Since there is now a high level of consensus across Australia about the importance of Asian languages, the necessity of keeping strong European-world languages and the domestic value of multi-lingualism these profiles will probably focus attention on the particular issues that affect the "condition" of individual languages considered important.

The classification, Languages of Wider Teaching is, however, no longer used. In the Australian Language and Literacy Policy issued by the Federal government in September 1991, the Commonwealth identified 14 languages; incorporating the present nine. These fourteen languages were called priority languages. Under the Commonwealth's Priority Languages Incentives Scheme education systems, the States and Territories select eight each as the basis of the funding support they receive from the Commonwealth under the ALLP.

These languages are: Aboriginal Languages, Arabic, Modern Standard Chinese, French, German, Modern Greek, Indonesian/Malay, Italian, Japanese, Spanish, Russian, Thai, Korean and Vietnamese.

It would be desirable to extend the profile analysis contained in these volumes to those languages not presently surveyed. In its work on Russian, the NLLIA is in a strong position to commence a profile analysis of Russian and is considering extending this to Thai, Korean and Vietnamese.

Joseph Lo Bianco
Director, NLLIA
July 1993

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Finally, we would like to thank the Faculty of Asian and International Studies and the Centre for Australia-Asia Relations, for housing the project and for tolerating our demands on their resources and space.

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Abbreviations

AACLAME	Australian Advisory Council on Languages and Multicultural Education
AEF	Asia Education Foundation
AISQ	Association of Independent Schools of Queensland
AISV	Association of Independent Schools of Victoria
AISWA	Association of Independent Schools of Western Australia
ALL	Australian Language Learning (Guidelines)
ALLP	Australian Language Levels Project
ANU	Australian National University
AsIA	Asia in Australia Council
ASLLP	Australian Second Language and Literacy Project
ASLPR	Australian Second Languages Proficiency Ratings
CALL	Computer Assisted Language Learning
CAT	Common Assessment Task
CSAA	China Studies Association of Australia
DEET	Department of Education, Employment and Training
DESV	Department of School Education Victoria
HSC	High School Certificate
LACU	Languages and Cultures Unit
LOTE	Language Other Than English
MLTA	Modern Language Teachers Association
MLTAV	Modern Language Teachers Association of Victoria
NaFLaSSL	National Framework for Languages at Senior Secondary Level
NLLIA	National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia
NPL	National Policy on Languages
PEB	Public Examinations Board
QBSSS	Queensland Board of Secondary School Studies
QCEC	Queensland Catholic Education Commission
QUT	Queensland University of Technology
ROSBA	Review of School Based Assessment
SACEO	South Australian Catholic Education Office
SAISB	South Australian Independent Schools Board
SPDDSEV	School Program Division of Department of School Education, Victoria
SSABSA	Secondary School Advisory Board of South Australia
TAFE	Tertiary and Further Education
TAFETEQ	TAFE Technical Employment Queensland
U of SA	University of South Australia
UNE	University of New England
UNSW	University of New South Wales
UWA	University of Western Australia
UWS	University of Western Sydney
VCAB	Victorian Curriculum and Assessment Board
VCE	Victorian Certificate of Education
VDEC	Victorian Distance Education Centre

Executive Summary

For language policy-makers the major issue is one of choice. In any social system, and this is particularly true for education systems in recent years, resources are finite and it is therefore necessary to make and rationalise that choice. The question of balance, therefore, looms large as an issue to be dealt with by the many bodies that have input into the formulation of policy. The parameters for language choice are often numerous and complex and it is not intended here to deal exclusively with issues such as Australia's economic and trading relationships and its community language profile. It is, however, important to note that these are very important issues at all levels of Australian life and the National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia has recognised this by setting these as important parameters for the nine individual language projects. Within these parameters, Chinese has a strong case for increased support so as to raise the number of students studying that language. However, it is not the aim of this report to fall into what Clyne (1991:1) describes as that "unfortunate and continuing atmosphere of competition" among LOTEs that has damaged LOTE policy in the past. As a co-operative effort the Key Languages Project firstly aims to increase the number of Australians studying a second language, and secondly, to advocate a greater study of specific languages to meet Australia's changing domestic and international contexts.

The following report therefore aims to provide a profile of Chinese language in all States and at all levels. Specifically, it aims to describe the position of Chinese language in the various education systems, the direction and quantity of change since the introduction of the National Policy on Languages in 1987 and factors promoting and/or inhibiting expanded language teaching and study. This profile will then be set against Australia's international economic and strategic context, as well as the current dynamic situation for Chinese language usage within Australia. The report will then evaluate these changes and make recommendations on how best to achieve an efficient and equitable provision of Chinese language in Australia. The importance of this task is highlighted by the current government's initiatives to make Australia more Asia-literate.

International Context

The populations, economies and cultures of Chinese societies rank among the largest, most dynamic and most significant in the world. Governments at all levels in Australia now recognise the importance of Chinese-speaking countries to this country. Australia is well positioned both geographically and strategically to take advantage of the rapid growth among all the Chinese states in its neighbourhood. This report recommends that the key to success in these areas is an integrated approach that has as its focus a significantly increased study of the Chinese languages.

Three of Asia's most dynamic economies - the People's Republic of China (PRC), Taiwan and Hong Kong - are Chinese-speaking. In 1991 their combined GDP was almost US$600 billion with exceptionally high growth rates - on average over 10 percent. In addition Singapore, with 75 percent of its population speaking Chinese, is the second most prosperous country in Asia with a per capita income of $US11,810 in November 1991 (CSSA National Strategy for Chinese 1992:19). Three of the so-called four 'mini dragons' or newly-industrialising economies are Chinese-speaking countries.

They have based their economic strategies on international trade, including their roles as commercial centres and entry points for the Asian region, foreign investment and, more recently, service industries such as banking and finance, and transport and communications. The growing wealth of the non-state sector in the PRC itself and the increasing prosperity of the middle classes in all Chinese communities has led to increased levels of consumption and opened new opportunities for the export of Australian goods and services. Many of the Chinese-speaking countries currently hold a surplus of foreign currency. Unique opportunities therefore exist to take advantage of this buying power to increase our exports as well as attract larger amounts of investment.

Exports to Chinese-speaking countries are second only to those to Japan. Four of the top ten destinations for Australia's exports are Chinese-speaking countries and in 1990 represented 13.47 percent of Australia's total exports. These markets have further potential for the export of raw materials, processed food, financial, legal and educational services, and a range of skills in the areas of design, engineering, telecommunications, marketing, transport, environment and management.

It has become commonplace in the 1980s and early 1990s to regard Australia's major economic problem as a deteriorating balance of trade and a massive increase in foreign debt. Australia accounts for only approximately 1 percent of total world trade (Stanley 1990:12) as well as a limited penetration and narrow range of export markets.

Expanded ties with Chinese communities in the region, as well as addressing this balance of trade problem, will provide opportunities for employment - now seen as the major problem that Australia's domestic economy will face into the middle and late 1990s. Regrettably, most Australian companies employ foreign nationals in their offices in Asia because they cannot find Australians who are familiar with Chinese language and culture. Consequently, Australians are missing significant employment opportunities and Australian businesses are not always represented by people who have the welfare of Australia at heart.

The Chinese world also exerts significant political, cultural and strategic influence in the Asian and world arenas. Many countries, particularly those of Southeast Asia, have large and influential Chinese communities. The report estimates that there are approximately 760 million people throughout the world who speak Modern Standard Chinese as their first language and another 232 million who speak it as a second or third language - making a combined total of just under a billion people.

The reasons for the study of the Chinese-speaking countries should not be seen as purely economic. The study of such a large and diverse group of countries enables Australian students to enquire broader cognitive, linguistic and social skills. The knowledge of the history and diversity of Chinese culture helps students to avoid stereotyping people from East and Southeast Asia, and hence to deal more sensitively with people from a variety of countries. The study will also develop the understanding of the Chinese community within Australia, therefore promoting a greater sense of unity for Australia as a whole.

To benefit substantially from the regional growth outlined above, however, Australia must undertake a more widespread and intensive education in the languages, history, cultures, societies and economies of the Chinese world.

Domestic Context

The pattern of Australia's immigration has changed dramatically since the 1960s. According to the Bureau of Immigration Research (BIR), people from Asian countries now make up more than 44 percent of Australia's total intake (BIR 1992:30). In recent years the numbers of Chinese speakers amongst these Asian immigrants have also increased significantly. Many of these people have arrived in Australia under the Business Immigration Scheme, providing considerable foreign exchange for Australia. In 1992, it was expected that immigrants from Hong Kong will exceed those from the United Kingdom. Numbers of Taiwanese, both Hakka and Modern Standard Chinese speakers, arriving in this country have increased by a massive 1000 percent since 1986. This report estimates that there are now possibly as many as 220,000 Chinese language speakers resident in Australia. Most of these Chinese speak Cantonese and other Chinese languages apart from Modern Standard Chinese (MSC) as their first language (L1). Recent business immigration from the Republic of China (Taiwan) and the influx of students from the People's Republic of China after the Tianamen tragedy, however, have boosted the numbers of MSC speakers in this country. There is little information on the second and third languages of those that speak a Chinese language other than MSC, but if they reflect the language profiles of other Chinese speakers overseas, many would be able to speak MSC. The overall proficiencies of these L2 and L3 speakers, though, is difficult to estimate.

Over 80 percent of Chinese live in the three eastern States of New South Wales, Victoria and Queensland and each of these States has seen large increases in numbers in recent years. Between these States, however, the pattern of settlement is gradually changing. Although New South Wales still receives approximately half of all Chinese-speaking immigrants (see Table 86), its percentage of the total number has declined marginally over the period 1986-92. New South Wales saw reductions in its share of the total number to arrive in Australia from each of the countries this report deals with - The People's Republic of China, Taiwan, Singapore, Hong Kong, Macau and Malaysia. Victoria has seen a decline in the percentage of Taiwanese that intended to settle in that State, and marginal increases in the percentages of people from the other five countries. Queensland has seen a large increase (11.5-29.5%) in its share of the total numbers of Taiwanese arriving in Australia, with the actual numbers jumping a massive 1500 percent between 1986 and 1992. Queensland also saw a substantial increase in its share of the total number of immigrants from Hong Kong.

Over 90 ethnic and Saturday schools provide a variety of language programs to between 13,000 and 14,000 of these Chinese immigrants and their families. The quality of this provision varies from school to school. A number, however, deliver high-quality programs which should receive an increased amount of institutional support. Primary amongst the wants of the ethnic school authorities is an increased status to be gained through the acceptance of the schools' programs within the various States' formal accreditation frameworks. The ethnic schools are a significant delivery point for language education in Australia, and this action would help consolidate the school programs as well as provide the students with outcomes that are meaningful

in the formal education system. The "mainstreaming" of the ethnic schools, however, should be handled in such a way so not to affect the diverse and rich variety of languages that are currently available in the ethnic school system. Other problems in the ethnic schools sector highlighted by this report are the lack of suitable classroom space and the lack of funding.

Since the publication of the NPL in 1987, the number of students at primary and secondary levels has increased significantly. Correspondingly, the number of schools offering Chinese language has increased throughout the majority of the States of Australia.

In 1988, approximately 2,300 students studied Chinese language at Australian primary schools, while in 1991 over 12,300 students studied the language. This represents an increase of approximately 440 percent. The upsurge, however, was not consistent across all States or systems (see Section 3.1).

Whereas increases in the primary sector have been dramatic (average increase of 350 percent for the government schools), the increases in the secondary sectors have been more modest (average of 14 percent). While there has not been sufficient time for the upsurge in primary numbers to flow on to this level, the current retention rates suggests that action needs to be taken to consolidate quality programs to make the most of the future increased demand. A similar pattern emerges for the independent schools, where there was an even larger percentage increase for the primary sector. Within the Catholic sector, Chinese language is poorly represented. Between 1986 and 1991, the numbers of primary students actually decreased by 43 percent, and while numbers in the secondary sector had a substantial increase percentage-wise, they were from a small base. It is not taught, at all, in the Catholic primary or secondary schools of Tasmania and the Australian Capital Territory. South Australia has also seen a strong decline in the numbers of students studying Chinese in its Catholic secondary schools. Chinese is also poorly represented in the Independent schools in Tasmania, the Australian Capital Territory and the Northern Territory.

Complete tertiary figures for the years 1987-92 have proved very difficult to collect, but we can state that numbers have increased significantly since 1987, and there are currently over 2328 students majoring in Chinese language. The number of HEIs offering Chinese has increased by 10 to 23, since the publication of Ingleson's report in 1989. The types of courses offered at universities have also evolved to better meet the needs of students in contemporary society.

A detailed analysis of the study of Chinese languages in the TAFE system is beyond the scope of this report. The TAFE system is a loose collection of independent institutions, and this report could not determine any general trends. Enrolments in some institutions had increased, while other institutions in the same city had been forced to cancel their Chinese language classes through lack of demand. The report estimates that approximately 1000 students study a Chinese language in the system. Students listed intention to visit the country, pleasure and curiosity, and interest in the culture as the main reasons to study a language at TAFE. Unfortunately, for a language like Chinese, where there is a need for a greater investment of time to gain some sort of fluency, the short taster and

hobby courses that TAFE have traditionally offered have not been successful. Chinese has therefore not been popular in this sector. However, with the new emphasis on vocational training and the role for TAFE within the education system that has been stressed by the Finn, Carmichael, and Mayer Committee Reports, those interested in languages need to consolidate the position of languages in this important sector. There is now an urgent need for the TAFE sector to provide a structure that can deliver the essential components of a good Chinese language program, namely intensity and continuity.

National Criteria

Repeated throughout this report is a call for a set of national objectives that are needed to rationalise the teaching of the Chinese language. These initiatives call for a rigourously constructed set of "minimum" criteria which the individual systems can use to build their own structures that meet local needs. These criteria should not be seen as a call for centralisation or conformity. In the past, language learning has been dominated - to its detriment - by the polemics of conflicting and dogmatic discourses, both at the theoretical and practical levels. Diversity, should be an important feature of any education system.

Rather, it should be seen as a need for the players at the different levels and of different theoretical positions to negotiate a set of common criteria for assessment, curriculum design (both for schools and HEIs), teacher training and registration, and materials and resources.

A number of initiatives are well advanced (e.g. the National Chinese Curriculum Project and NAFLaSSL) and are being, or shortly will be, implemented across the country.

It is important that the rationale for such national criteria be established through consensus. This is especially important given the speed at which a number of these initiatives are being implemented. National collaboration may be able to give better definition to the components of a comprehensive curriculum.

This report argues that national criteria can provide a framework which would encourage systems to address the issues of comprehensiveness and balance in the curriculum. There is only sporadic teaching of Chinese language throughout Australia, and a large drop-off of numbers after Years 7 and 10 (see Section 3.1). A curriculum that focuses on a full range of learning outcomes must have LOTE as one of its components. Since the 1960s this has definitely not been the case for Australian schools.

The moves towards a greater role for the region in the decision making process and the school in assessing their own students are to be applauded. But there is now a need for methods of assessment and reporting to reflect the intentions of national curicula and provide parents, employers and HEIs across the country with clear and meaningful proficiency scales. Initiatives that work towards the construction of accurate methods of measuring language proficiency should be given a high priority.

In other countries the response to an unevenness in the content and structure has been to legislate which subjects will be taught (Hill 1991:87). A number

of State governments are making LOTE part of the core curriculum, albeit within different structures. As well, New South Wales is making 100 hours of LOTE study mandatory for its Year 7 students (First year of secondary school in NSW). Given Australia's poor performance over recent years with respect to LOTE, there is a strong argument to legislate for LOTE to be part of the core curriculum of Australian secondary schools. This is a contentious issue, especially in the light of the recent democratisation of the education system, and it is unlikely that governments would consider it, while community awareness of the importance of LOTE is as low as it is. The first step, therefore, is to raise this awareness and provide further incentives for students to study a LOTE.

Conclusion

This report presents a framework from which to argue for an increased study of Chinese language across all sectors of Australia's formal and informal education systems. The framework focuses on the following points:

- The importance of Chinese-speaking countries in Australia's trade and strategic relationships;
- The emergence of Chinese languages as important community languages in Australia through a presentation of updated immigration figures.
- The benefits that learning Chinese language will offer to students in the understanding of over 1 billion of the world's inhabitants, as well as a considerable portion of the Australia community.

Although there have been significant increases in the numbers of students studying Chinese, this has been from a small base and the numbers are not spread evenly across all States, systems and HEIs.

Particular efforts should now be made to ensure that increased numbers in the primary sector be translated into the desired outcomes at Year 12. Past retention rates from Year 10 to Year 11 are generally poor and the numbers of students matriculating with a high standard of Chinese is low. Education bodies should now turn their attention to the problem of low retention rates of Chinese students, from primary to secondary and, more importantly, from junior to post-compulsory secondary education. Although our attitudinal survey found that there was no single determining factor which directly influenced students to discontinue, the reason most often given was that of competing subject choice. The survey also found that students that rated language skills positively were less likely to discontinue.

The project identified a large number of enthusiastic teachers, and in many instances the current success of Chinese is due to their initiatives. Generally, however, the quality of the programs, in all sectors, needs to be improved. Greater emphasis needs to be placed on the professional development of teachers both at the pre-service and in-service levels. The essential skills that a language teacher must possess should be defined and set out as the basis on which individual teacher training institutions can design their programs. The increased emphasis on teacher training should not come at the expense of materials' development. New resources are needed to meet the increased demand in the primary sector. As these students move onto higher levels, hopefully with better standards, there will also be demands for new sets of materials that meet the predicted increased proficiencies.

The report recommends that in the first instance three things need to be done to facilitate this increased study of Chinese.

Firstly, at the language planning level there needs to be more attention to setting long-term goals. This entails making decisions (to the best of our ability) about how many Chinese speakers we will need to meet Australia's future needs. Specific implementation guidelines that translate policy into classroom and community action can then be determined. As has often been the case in Australia, policy documents remain merely motherhood statements, without concrete implementation guidelines. There should be an increased role for the practising teacher in the formulation of these guidelines. If long-term goals are in place, it will be easier to develop the materials and resources and to train and retrain the numbers of teachers and to develop the courses needed to meet these goals.

Secondly, through national collaboration a better definition of the essential criteria for quality and comprehensive language programs (including the measurement of outcomes) needs to be found. Emphasis can then be placed on the delivery of quality Chinese language programs in the schools and Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). These national criteria should include:

- the types of knowledge that are necessary for a LOTE teacher, so HEIs can formulate consistent teacher training curricula;
- meaningful and portable assessable outcomes for Year 12 and tertiary students;
- the essential requirements of primary, secondary and tertiary curricula (currently being undertaken for the primary and secondary sectors by the National Chinese Curriculum Project);
- an in-built on-going evaluation component for policy and other initiatives.
- an increased minimum of hours of classroom contact time for the teaching of Chinese.

For this to happen efficiently, there is an urgent need for a central body for Chinese language studies to coordinate the information flow between teachers and education bodies.

Thirdly, Chinese language needs to be marketed in a sensitive way so as to convince the community at large and the educational institutions specifically, that this increased study of Chinese language is a necessary component of Australia's continued prosperity.

In conclusion, these profiles of key languages are the first important steps in the provision of information that will become the basis for further policy formulation. While many issues in this report relate to LOTE in general, some issues are specific to particular languages or language groups. At the level of the Chinese language classroom, the teaching of character based scripts and the ability of systems to provide classroom contact hours sufficient that are needed to produce reasonable student proficiency outcomes are factors that need attention.

Recommendations

Recommendation 1

This report supports *The Australian Language and Literacy Policy's* recommendation that there is a need for increased language study in Australia. Chinese language study should receive a share of any additional resources provided, reflecting its new importance in Australian domestic and international contexts.

Recommendation 2

This report recommends that DEET investigate the possibility of establishing a Cantonese language program in at least one tertiary institution by 1995.

Recommendation 3

This report recommends that the outcomes of the National Chinese Curriculum be assessed at suitable periods after its initial implementation and revised, if necessary, to meet the changing contexts of Chinese language education in Australian schools.

Recommendation 4

The report recommends that State and Territory authorities support the aims and principles of the NAFLaSSL Framework and that obstacles standing in the way of the successful implementation of the framework be removed.

Recommendation 5

This report recommends that an ability to speak a LOTE should be recognised within the framework of the Australian Vocational Certificates Scheme as an important area of competency.

Recommendation 6

The report recommends that all of the China Studies Association of Australia recommendations outlined in Section 2.1.7 of this report should be considered for implementation.

Recommendation 7

This report recommends that the Federal Government maintain financial support for the Asia Education Foundation (AEF) at least at its present levels until at least the end of the century and that the AEF should allocate a substantial proportion of its efforts to China studies.

Recommendation 8

The report recommends that the Federal and State governments implement national standardised reporting practices for educational institutions, so that accurate and complete data is available on LOTEs in Australia, thereby ensuring policy formulation is determined by the highest quality of information available.

Recommendation 9

The report recommends that State and national initiatives aim to raise the numbers of Chinese language students within the primary and secondary sectors to those of the most popular European languages. This should be achieved, not at the expense of other languages, but through an intensive recruitment process for LOTE as a whole.

Recommendation 10

The report recommends that the range of competencies that has been outlined in the reports *Teacher Education in Australia*, and *The National Enquiry into the Employment and Supply of Teachers of Languages Other Than English* are basic to the field of teaching a LOTE and should be integrated into a set of national criteria with which HEIs can construct teacher training curricula.

Recommendation 11

The report recommends that professional development for teachers of Chinese be seen as a priority issue for the success of Chinese language study in Australia.

Recommendation 12

The report recommends that where States do not have Chinese language teaching professional bodies, States should encourage their establishment and that these bodies, with their practical experience, should be involved in the professional development of teachers.

Recommendation 13

The report recommends that a national clearinghouse be established to facilitate the efficient flow of information on the availability of materials and resources for the teaching and learning of Chinese language for different education systems across all levels of education.

Recommendation 14

The report recommends that Federal and State funding be made available for the development of specialist Chinese language courses for native and background speakers at all levels.

Recommendation 15

The report recommends that administrators, researchers and teachers adopt a more positive attitude towards background-speakers: as a resource rather than a disincentive.

Recommendation 16

The report recommends continued support for Recommendation 38 of the Ingleson report: "We recommend that institutions support an expansion in summer intensive courses in Asian languages and that these be recognised by the host institution as credit earning for degree purposes".

Recommendation 17

The report recommends that Commonwealth funds support research into the best form of incountry language programs and then support the implementation of these courses across Australia.

Recommendation 18

The report recommends as a priority for the tertiary sector that funding for the development and production of Chinese language texts (both for general and special purpose courses) be made available by government bodies as soon as possible.

Recommendation 19

The report recommends that TAFE systems encourage the establishment of LOTE departments within the colleges.

Recommendation 20

The report recommends that state education bodies support Recommendation 49 of the Future Directions for Ethnic Schools in South Australia and implement guidelines that will ensure access to government school classrooms for the ethnic schools.

Recommendation 21

The report recommends that DEET fund an investigation into the best possible methods to integrate the ethnic schools more closely into the formal education system.

1.0 Introduction

1.1 Preamble

For language policy-makers, the major issue is that of choice. In any social system, and this is particularly true for education systems in recent years, resources are finite and it is therefore necessary to choose and defend that choice. Over recent years there have been a number of initiatives to restructure the balance of languages available in Australian language institutions. This re-evaluation has come about for many reasons, not least of which is the realisation of the importance of Australia's geo-political position, including its current trading and immigration profiles.

Chinese language has been included by the Australian government in its fourteen priority languages incentives scheme. This reflects the importance the government places on the contribution Chinese language can make to Australian society, both as a national resource and towards the establishment of an equitable language policy that incorporates the maintenance of Australia's community languages.

Chinese language, however, is an umbrella term for a number of dialects and languages. Indeed, there are more than 20 distinct varieties of Chinese language spoken throughout the world and the diversity of these languages and dialects is well known.

Each State and Territory education system has chosen Modern Standard Chinese as one of its eight priority languages. The majority of other educational institutions (e.g. tertiary, independent, etc.) have also chosen Modern Standard Chinese as their preferred Chinese language of study.

There is, however, a contradiction with respect to these choices. The Chinese language studied in the majority of institutions throughout Australia is not the language spoken by the majority of Chinese speakers in this country or that of a number of our Chinese-speaking trading partners. This contradiction however is not insoluble.

Modern Standard Chinese is the *lingua franca* of the People's Republic of China and the Republic of China and is used by educated Chinese in other parts of Asia and the world. It is also one of the official languages of the Republic of Singapore. In 1997 and 1999, Modern Standard Chinese will also become one of the national languages of Hong Kong and Macau after these two territories are returned to the PRC through the *Sino-British Joint Declaration on the Question of Hong Kong* and the agreement with Portugal over Macau. Its importance as a world language is also highlighted by its recognition as one of the United Nations' official languages.

The spoken form is based on Beijing speech. It is the first language of over 760 million people in the north-east, north-west, central and south-western provinces of mainland China as well as in Taiwan. The form of written characters used in the PRC and Singapore was substantially revised and simplified in the 1950s and 1979 respectively. In Taiwan and Hong Kong the traditional, or full-form characters, are still used to write standard Chinese.

These characters are also employed by overseas Chinese communities in, for example, Malaysia, Australia and Indonesia, where they are frequently used to write Cantonese and other Chinese languages as well as Modern Standard Chinese.

What is significant, however, is that all of these Chinese languages share a common written language using the same characters and a syntax that is generally based on that of Modern Standard Chinese. Documents written in Chinese can easily be read or spoken by the speakers of all Chinese languages.

This report, therefore, will in the main deal with Modern Standard Chinese because of its general acceptance as an international language, its official status in the PRC, Singapore and Taiwan and its importance as a language of trade for Australia. We have defined Modern Standard Chinese as all of those dialects that fall under the umbrella term of the Mandarin Supergroup (Table 1) as outlined in the *The Language Atlas of China*. The language map of China (Appendix B) is attached to highlight the dynamic nature of Chinese language and to locate Modern Standard Chinese within that dynamism.

Northeastern Mandarin Group
Zhongyuan Mandarin Group
Beijing Mandarin Group
Lanyin Mandarin Group
Beifang Mandarin Group
Southwestern Mandarin Group
Jiaoliao Mandarin Group
Jinghuai Mandarin Group
Mandarin (not yet grouped)

Table 1
Mandarin Supergroup

For the purposes of the report, we have constructed a group of "Chinese-speaking countries". We do not deal solely with the PRC, but have expanded the scope of the report to include Taiwan, Singapore, Hong Kong and Macau. They all share a common written language and have high percentages of Modern Standard Chinese as L1, L2 or L3 speakers.

To help bridge the oral language contradiction described above, the report also recognises Cantonese as an important community language in Australia. Recent data from the Bureau of Immigration Research suggests that Hong Kong will in the very near future overtake the United Kingdom as our largest source of immigrants. Cantonese-speaking migrants from Hong Kong, Malaysia and other countries make up an estimated 11.9 percent of Australia's total intake (BIR 1992:14). The maintenance of Cantonese is, while not a central consideration for the formal education areas, therefore an important issue for the Australia's pluralistic community in general. For these reasons the report looks at Cantonese language in the Ethnic School Programs and other informal sites. For this reason Malaysia is included in the Census and immigration data presented in Section 8.0 on Language in Australia.

Given the large number of Cantonese-speaking immigrants arriving in Australia and the exceptional economic growth in the Cantonese-speaking

areas there are now strong grounds for the introduction of Cantonese into the formal education. It will be recommended that in the first instance DEET investigate potential interest in the establishment of a Cantonese language course in at least one major tertiary institution.

The issue of background-speakers is one that looms large in the literature surrounding Chinese language education in Australia. This generic term is one of convenience, rather than one that accurately describes this heterogeneous group. Section 9.0 outlines the complex and diverse range of languages that are submerged under the term "Chinese Language". For the purposes of this report, native speakers are those that speak the target language as their first language. Background speakers, on the other hand, are those with a dialect or language within the Chinese language complex as an L1, other than Modern Standard Chinese.

1.2 Methodology

The budget for the project allowed for an initial investigation of ten months, but this was extended to twelve months. The project team constituted one full-time research assistant, one language project officer and two project directors. The steering committee consisting of a practising Chinese language teacher, a Chinese language LOTE adviser to the Languages and Cultures Unit (LACU) of the Queensland Education Department, a representative of LACU, a prominent member of the local Chinese community, the two project directors and the research assistant met four times during the project and workshopped the findings into the first draft.

Following an initial survey of the literature (including a number of conference proceedings on issues specific to Chinese language studies), a series of questionnaires was devised for the following:

a The 169 Chinese teachers of Chinese language who taught in 1991 in primary or secondary schools were surveyed. The survey looked specifically for teacher responses to the issues of:
- Pre-service education;
- In-service education;
- Quality of materials and resources;
- Teachers' perceptions of students' decisions to continue/not continue;
- Teacher qualifications/experience.

b Surveys were mailed to the teacher/administrators of 84 ethnic schools in all states. The questionnaires specifically targeted data on numbers of students (studying Mandarin and Cantonese), numbers of teachers and their qualifications/experience, funding, aims and resources.

c State LOTE Departments were surveyed with a set of questions that focused on the State's general LOTE policy, recent initiatives in Chinese language, problems in implementing policy and teacher registration requirements.

d A sub-committee of the Coordinators' Committee was set up specifically to devise a questionnaire to survey the motivation for students to continue or discontinue the study of LOTEs into post-

compulsory secondary education. The target population for this survey was selected from 1991 Year 10 students who had studied any LOTE, some of which in Year 11 had continued to study a LOTE and some who had not. Sixty-nine schools were surveyed with individual projects selecting a set that gave a representative sample for their specific language in the secondary sector. Given the small numbers of students studying Chinese language a larger sample (over 20) was targeted amongst those 69 schools.

Data for the primary, secondary and tertiary sectors were centrally collected by the NLLIA. Data on the TAFE, Ethnic and other informal sites were collected by the individual projects.

For a period of two weeks, the project's research assistant conducted interviews with series of key personnel in the various sectors of Chinese language education. Those interviewed were Phillip Lee (Head of Chinese language at UNSW), Jim Wilson (Deputy Director of the Asia - Australia Institute), Wee Tak Teo (Principal of the Sydney Chinese School), Dr Jane Orton (Head of Chinese Studies, Institute of Education University of Melbourne), Dr Anne MaClaren (Head of Chinese Studies at La Trobe University), Mrs Leung (Principal of the Melbourne Chinese School), Gordon Dickson (primary and junior secondary teacher) and Michael Shaw (junior and senior secondary teacher), Melbourne Grammar School, Stephen Lee (Head of Chinese Language), Camberwell Grammar School, Julie Riley (co-author of the National Chinese Curriculum), Phillip Wilson, (junior and senior secondary teacher), Marion High School Adelaide, Paul Tuffin, (NAFLaSSL), Prof. Andrew Watson (Head of Asian Studies), University of Adelaide, Geoff Davis (junior and senior secondary Chinese language teacher and recently seconded to NAFLaSSL), Mount Waverly High, Perth, and Wally Frick (Head of Chinese Studies and Acting Director of the Language Centre), Edith Cowan University. The views and opinions of these experts in the field were then incorporated with the quantitative findings from the surveys and form the basis of this report.

This report takes an advocatory role for Chinese and provides recommendations to facilitate the increased vitality of the Chinese language study in Australia.

1.3 The Question of Balance

The aim of this report, as outlined above, is to provide a profile of Chinese language study in contemporary Australia, and to make the case for an increased study of the language so as to meet Australia's current and future needs. Australian policy-makers have to arrive at a balance in the distribution of resources, that best meets these needs. Factors such as Australia's international trading patterns and its own community language profile are important inputs for "balanced" policy formulation. These factors are, and should be, important aspects of Australian government decision making. However, languages that are not prominent within these matrices should not be thought of as unimportant, for they also, offer a great variety of cultural and intellectual benefits for the Australian population.

The whole question of balance is a problematic one. What does balance mean? What is it a balance between? Is the balance to be offered at the school, regional, state or national level?

The answers to these questions are not to be the central focus of this report. However, there are a number of issues with respect to the notion of balance that impact on Chinese language study and our recommendation that Chinese language study needs to be expanded.

Firstly, the terrain of balance is often defined in geographical terms, as a dichotomy between Asian and European languages. An equal balance between Asian and European languages often means very little for the individual languages grouped under these umbrella terms. A good example of this is how the New South Wales document, *The Regional Plan - Vision (1990)* regularly takes, as its representative example of Asian and European languages, Japanese and German. This is not to say that the document is only pushing the Japanese and German line, but rather to point out how easily generic terms like "Asian languages" can be collapsed into a single representative language. Using generic terms in policy statements to answer the question of balance also has effects on a more practical level. Policy, of course, comes to little unless the systems can supply the human and classroom resources necessary to implement that policy. Often attempts to construct a balance are made based on already existing expertise. For example, there may be a number of graduates in one particular Asian language, but not in a variety of Asian languages. The temptation to achieve a "balance" between Asian and European languages could easily be solved by finding Asian expertise within the narrow range of these available resources and not through the creation of more resources in a variety of Asian languages. Policy should therefore be written *in terms that address the needs of specific languages*, not merely in generic terms of convenience.

Secondly, balance should not be read in terms of competition between languages. In such an environment it will be LOTE as a whole that suffers - and therefore the aims of a multilingual Australia. The primary aim of projects such as this Key Languages Project is to form the foundation for policy formulation that will increase the study of LOTE across the Australian community to the desired levels. Past debates over language have often taken place in this exact type of competitive environment. Clyne (1989) documents the damage this sort of debate can have on LOTEs as a whole. In the end, it is up to the clients of education systems, schools, students and their parents to make the choice. Paul Braddy, the former Minister of Education for the Queensland government, distanced the decision-making process from the particular language lobby groups in exactly this way when he said about the question of balance:

> there has been a good deal of discussion on this question, much of it informed by special interests.While governments can propose and support languages, in the end it is the parents and students who choose on the basis on the basis of interest and future employment possibilities, and push for these languages to be made available in schools. So community demand for particular languages, as well as supply, is a crucial factor in determining language choice in our schools. (1989:27)

The decision-making process for curriculum choice in nearly all Australian educational systems has become more democratic. The shift to the local level, although not without a number of problems which is discussed elsewhere in this report, must be seen as a positive step. Under these conditions, however, it is now the role of government to provide the free flow of information on the potential value of a whole range of second languages so that, at the local level, the best possible decisions can be made. Language planning therefore becomes an interactive process, where government and local bodies work together so as to provide the best possible delivery of languages and the necessary human and material to support them.

"Balance" is often measured in quantitative not qualitative terms. There has been a significant increase in the study of Chinese language in Australia and this increase may be seen in some ways to address the "imbalance" that had previously been the case. However, the increase has been predominantly in the government and independent primary sectors. The structure of these courses varies greatly from system to system. How they will translate into the desired outcomes at future Year 12 levels is a matter of great importance. The worrying problem is that, if numbers as a whole are seen to satisfy "balance", the enthusiasm to inject the desired inputs for quality and continuity across the different sectors and levels may diminish. This may have great importance for Chinese, being only a recently established language in what is already perceived as an overcrowded school curriculum. A good example of the hidden imbalances can be seen in the schools data for Queensland and South Australia, where there numbers of students taken as a whole are reasonably good, however if we consider only the post-compulsory sector the results are very poor (see Tables 3.0-3.5).

Recommendation 1
This report supports The Australian Language and Literacy Policy's *recommendation that there is a need for increased language study in Australia. Chinese language study should receive a share of any additional resources provided, reflecting its new importance in Australian domestic and international contexts.*

Given that there are many languages that come under the term 'Chinese Language' the balance among Chinese languages is also an issue that authorities must address. As has previously been discussed, this report, in the main, will deal with Modern Standard Chinese as that language has official status, as well as being by far the major Chinese language taught in our formal education systems. However, given the numbers of Cantonese speakers now living in Australia, and the high numbers of these speakers expected to arrive until at least 1997, and the size of Australia's trade with the Cantonese speaking countries, authorities should investigate the possibility of establishing a number of Cantonese language courses throughout the country. In the first instance the language may be trialled at a tertiary level in one of the cities that have considerable numbers of speakers or have social and economic ties with Cantonese countries. Sydney and Melbourne, traditionally, have had large populations of Cantonese speakers and therefore would be suitable for the establishment of Cantonese language courses. Brisbane, although having a smaller population of speakers than these two cities, has seen the largest increase in its share of the total number of Cantonese speakers immigrating to Australia.

Once a number of courses have been set up at the tertiary level, primary and secondary systems that feed these institutions can develop appropriate curriculum for the language.

It is important that Cantonese and Mandarin not compete for the same funding, but rather be supported as two languages that will contribute to Australia's future in the region.

Recommendation 2
This report recommends that DEET investigate the possibility of establishing a Cantonese language program in at least one tertiary institution by 1995.

2.0 National Policies and Initiatives

2.1 Introduction

There have been a large number of language policies and initiatives developed in Australia in recent years. In fact it is acknowledged amongst language planners that Australia has led the English-speaking world in the formalisation of language policy in many areas (Ingram 1991:1). While authorities are to be congratulated for their attempts to come to terms with the difficult problem of monolingualism in Australia, it is clear, for whatever reasons, that these policies and initiatives have as yet failed to achieve the desired numbers of bilingual and multilingual speakers that Australia needs. There is now a need for an increased rigour in the implementation of the ideals set down in these documents to ensure the stated goals are met.

Ingram (1991:7) in his paper delivered to the 17th FIPLV World Congress on Language Learning, *Lifelong Language Learning*, states that:

> (t)here remains a need to emphasize that policy-making is not a matter of putting together a string of good ideas or warm good wishes for the well being of languages and their speakers, but that it should be a rigorous and rational process, leading to coherent, comprehensive and informed policy and implementation with continuous evaluation being an integral part leading to policy adjustment in the light of new insights and changing needs.

He goes on to outline a number of elements that rational policy should contain:

- a description of the nature of the society that policy is to serve;
- a statement of needs (both societal and personal);
- policy proposals;
- implementation recommendations;
- indicators of success or the basis for the evaluation of the policy and its implementation; and
- a summary rationale for each policy proposal and implementation.

Nicholas, et al (1993) in the *National Enquiry into the Employment and Supply of Teachers of Languages Other Than English*, accurately describes the implementation and development of language policy as a complex process that requires negotiation between "players at a number of levels". The key players are:

- the Commonwealth;
- States/Territories;
- education systems (including sub-levels of those at regional/district level);
- schools and school communities (including teachers, parents and students).

In addition, and spanning all these levels in different ways are:

- Higher Education Institutions (HEIs);
- Teacher professional bodies;
- The National Languages and Literacy Institute. (Nicholas et al. 1993:53)

Each of these bodies has some degree of independence. The Commonwealth however, is in a position to influence the larger issues such as the direction of overall education policy through its general financial practices. In recent years this has meant, as exemplified in the 1991 *Australia's Language - The Australian Language and Literacy Policy* (ALLP), a prioritisation of languages with a greater emphasis on economic and trade issues.

The implementation of language policy is, on the other hand, the formal responsibility of the States and Territories. At the local level, the regions and school communities are increasingly becoming the focus of curriculum, staffing and other budgeting administrative decisions that actually translate policy into classroom action.

Enmeshed within this hierarchy are a number of bodies (some of which are outlined above) which can influence all levels in one way or another as well as act as communication avenues between these levels. In the case of Modern Standard Chinese, the HEIs have had a vital role in the supply of teachers to meet the needs created by the rapid increase in student numbers since the 1980s. State and Territory departments and HEIs are now working more closely in attempts to provide a more coherent and rational set of resources, both material and human, so as to meet the future needs of the language students. HEIs though, have been slow to provide primary LOTE teachers and the structures of their teacher training courses may well impinge on the outcomes desired by the State or Territory.

For Nicholas et al. - and this report supports that view - "effective language policy implementation requires a set of procedures for the establishment of shared parameters and clear and consistent communication within these parameters"(1992:58). The logical follow-on from Nicholas et al. statements is that the Commonwealth should promote a set of national criteria that are determined through consultation with all levels, and that meet national needs. Furthermore, the rationale that underlines these criteria should be explicitly stated and continually open to review. The States therefore have some scope to formulate policy that is based on common criteria, but also can be adapted to the conditions in the various systems. The recent moves toward the construction of sets of national criteria that are outlined in the policies, reports and initiatives below are seen as very positive for LOTE in Australia.

The central focus of this report is not to provide a critique of the specific language policies and initiatives, but rather to provide a profile of the changes that have brought about by them. However it is clear from the teacher survey and discussions with tertiary teachers that policy in the past has neglected a number of elements that Nicholas et al. and Ingram describe. Policy documents have to a large extent remained "motherhood" type statements, without setting clear implementation guidelines. The gap

between the producers of policy and the consumers of policy may well be filled by a number of the initiatives outlined here.

This report will look at the following policies (Sections 2.1.1 to 2.1.8) in the light of the framework outlined above, highlighting their importance for the study of Chinese language.

2.1.1 National Policy on Languages

The 1987 Lo Bianco report, the *National Policy on Languages* (NPL), was the first real attempt to build a national framework that incorporated all languages of relevance to Australia. The framework was built on the need to meet four strategic demands:

a the growing demands created by the emergence of Australia as a multilingual, and multicultural society;
b the need of national unity;
c Australia's domestic economic, educational and social needs; and
d the educational, economic, political, technological and social development needs of Australians in a multilingual world.

These general aims are to be achieved by the four principles that underpin the NPL:

- English for all;
- support for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Island languages;
- a language other than English for all;
- equitable and widespread Languages.

The implementation of this policy was placed in the context of:

- the overcoming of injustices, disadvantages and discrimination related to language;
- the enrichment of cultural and intellectual life in Australia;
- the integration of language teaching/learning with Australia's external (economic and political) needs priorities;
- the provision of clear expectations to the community about language in general and about language in education in particular;
- support for component groups of Australian society (ethnic communities, the deaf, Aboriginal groups), for whom language issues are very important, with recognition, encouragement, and guidance in attempts to link technology and language use and learning (Lo Bianco 1987:189).

The NPL recognises two broad categories of languages:
1 languages used in the Australian community;
2 languages of wider teaching.

The first category contains the wide range of languages that are spoken in the contemporary Australian community. A number of these languages are also to be found in the latter group. This group of languages, chosen for wider study because of their domestic and international importance, consists of

Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Greek, Indonesian/Malay, Italian, Japanese and Spanish.

The NPL is an important document in that it provided (and still provides) the most comprehensive rationale for the study of languages in Australia, as well as consolidating the importance of the languages of our own geo-political region, of which Chinese languages are an important group. This commitment was consolidated by Commonwealth funds that have been crucial to the development of Chinese language in Australia.

The Australian Advisory Council on Languages and Multicultural Education (AACLAME) estimated that between 1987-88 and 1990-91 the Commonwealth government allocated approximately $94 million dollars for the implementation of the NPL (AACLAME 1990:iv). These funds were distributed through six important programs in the areas of English as a second language for children, adult literacy, maintenance and the development of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Island languages, learning of languages other than English and cross-cultural awareness programs for professionals.

The two most important programs that affected Chinese language study were the Australian Second Language Learning Program (ASLLP) and the Asian Studies Program. These programs have funded a diversity of projects, including professional development for teachers, curriculum development (including the National Chinese Curriculum Project), materials development (including *Dragon's Tongue),* establishment of databases and new Chinese language courses. Table 2 is a summary of the the NPL programs relevant to Chinese language study (excluding administration costs) outlined in AACLAME's report to the Minister for Employment, Education and Training, *The National Policy on Languages: December 1987 March 1990*:

Program	1987-88 $m	1988-89 $m	1989-90 $m	1990-91$m
ASLLP	3.9	7.7	7.7	3.9
Asian Studies Program	1.85	1.96	-	-

Table 2
Funding for NPL projects 1987-91

The importance of these financial initiatives is borne out by the fact that many of the important programs for Chinese language study discussed below have been funded by these monies - for example, the National Chinese Curriculum Project and *Dragon's Tongue*. Funding for the initiatives under the NPL ceased in 1990.

2.1.2 Australia's Language - The Australian Language and Literacy Policy

Australia's language - The Australian Language and Literacy Policy (ALLP) now sets the agenda for Commonwealth language policy. The ALLP clearly reflects the Commonwealth's continuing strong commitment to a formal language policy. The basic policy stance in the ALLP is indicated in the

foreword to the first volume, where the then Minister for Employment, Education and Training made the following statements:

> We should all aspire to an Australia whose citizens are literate and articulate. (DEET 1991a: iii)
>
> Australian English, of course, is our national language. But Australia's cultural vitality is also the product of other languages spoken in our community. (DEET 1991a:iii)
>
> The establishment of priorities is complicated by the wide range of language groups represented in our community. Notwithstanding these difficulties, some selection is inevitable in order to guide our efforts in curriculum development, teacher training and resource allocation. Priority attention must be given to languages of broader interest to Australia. (DEET 1991a: 15)
>
> Australia's location in the Asia-Pacific region and our patterns of trade should continue to be a factor in this selection of priorities. (DEET 1991a:15)
>
> Proficiency in languages other than English is important because it: enriches our community intellectually, educationally and culturally; contributes to economic, diplomatic, strategic, scientific and technological development; and contributes to social cohesion through better communication and understanding throughout the broader Australia community. (DEET 1991a:14-15)

The ALLP marks a more economic and pragmatic attitude to the prioritisation of languages other than English than does the NPL. It clearly gives a new priority to languages of the region that it perceives to be of economic importance. It nominates 14 priority languages - Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Modern Greek, Russian, Spanish, Thai and Vietnamese - and requires each State and Territory to select at least eight of these languages for certain funding purposes. As well, it offers a special funding of $300 per Year 12 student completing a priority language. However, it also seeks to encourage the learning of other languages through a wide variety of modes and offers the Curriculum Corporation of Australia to support of languages "which do not need to be made widely available, but where national collaboration is a cost effective means of national development" (DEET 1991b: 77-79).

Importantly the ALLP recognises the importance of Asian languages, especially for economic reasons, and identifies Asian languages and LOTE teacher education as priority areas for the allocation of higher education student places in the 1991-1993 triennium (DEET 1991a: 17):

> Combined with other vocational skills, language knowledge can improve employability. However, there have been relatively few attempts to integrate language study with other vocational training or to develop vocationally relevant courses. Yet the vocational relevance of languages is an increasingly important motivator for language study. (DEET 1991b:62)

> In determining the languages to receive priority, systems should consider the benefits of ensuring that Australia has the linguistic capacity to deal effectively with changing relationships in Asia, Europe, the Middle East and the Pacific Rim. Countries in these regions are important to Australia both economically and as a source of many migrants. (1991b:76)

There is to be a stronger focus on proficiency in objectives, in assessment and in course design with the aim of raising the quality of language teaching in Australia so that students gain higher and more relevant proficiency levels to meet industry needs for Asian skills. Major areas identified in the Companion Volume to the policy were:

- Excellence in delivery of language (p. 79)
- Improved proficiency in all levels in Asian (and other) languages (p. 86)
- Aligning Asian language skills with industry requirements (p. 85)

The ALLP is a positive document for Chinese language in Australia. Because of its more economic and pragmatic attitude, the ALLP recognises the importance of Asian languages in the economic and socio-political milieu of the Asia-pacific region. The ALLP, however, in the future may prove to be short on implementation strategies that would translate this commitment to languages, especially from the Asian region, into classroom and community practice.

2.1.3 Asia in Higher Education - Report of the Inquiry Into the Teaching of Asian Studies and Languages in Higher Education

John Ingleson's report *Asia in Higher Education: Report of the Inquiry Into the Teaching of Asian Studies and Languages in Higher Education* (1989), (henceforth AIHE), was not a policy document, but rather an investigation into the then-current situation for Asian studies and languages in Higher Education Institutions (HEI) throughout Australia. Emphasis was to be placed on the needs of industry in the area of Asian studies as well as higher education's role in creating an "Asia literate" society in Australia (AIHE 1989:8).

Ingleson found that faculties across the country (in 1989) generally remained Eurocentric, and reform and restructuring was essential if Australia was to come to terms with its geo-political position. The study of Asia and its languages still remained at the margins of curriculum making up only 1.66 percent of all teaching programs at HEIs (p.14). Asian studies were often counterposed to Australian or traditional curriculum preventing any real cross-fertilization of either. This contrasted the demands of employers who wanted "Asian" experts across many disciplines. He stressed the importance of not limiting the study of Asia to language departments and called for a greater integration of Asian subjects across all courses where it was possible.

The report also offered several options to increase the proficiency of tertiary students of Asian languages:

- greater emphasis on pre-tertiary training;
- teaching more intensively;
- credit for vacation courses;
- increasing the number of Asian language courses offered in external mode;
- more postgraduate language students;
- more in-country training;
- increasing the length of courses.

The report highlighted a number of problems with teacher education. Language methodologies needed upgrading. There was a low demand amongst Asian language graduates to become teachers, possibly because of the perceived low status and rewards for teachers in general. These points are discussed in greater length in Sections 5.2-5.4.

2.1.4 The National Chinese Curriculum Project

The *National Chinese Curriculum Project* (NCCP), begun in 1988, was funded by the Asian Studies Council under a National Policy on Languages allocation and administered by the Victorian Ministry of Education. The aim of the project is to produce a set of flexible curriculum guidelines based on the Australian Language Levels (ALL) guidelines, as well as a set of materials for primary and secondary classrooms. The curriculum takes as its focus beginning second-language learners, as well as other second-language learners at various levels. It constructs a pathway where these learners can enter at four points: lower primary; middle primary; upper primary; and junior secondary, and pursue a continuous study of Chinese to senior secondary. The curriculum will be the most substantial resource for primary and lower secondary Chinese study available and will be ready for use by schools in the first semester of 1993. The curriculum will provide an excellent foundation for Chinese language in the primary sector and is the first of a truly national set of initiatives that is needed to meet the current set of problems facing Australian Chinese studies. (The Curriculum is dealt with in more detail in the section on materials and resources for the primary and secondary sectors below.)

Given the importance of the NCCP for the future of Chinese language study for all levels of study, and the variety of State structures that it will have to operate within, there will be a need to monitor its performance. This is seen by the report as an important aspect of the implementation of the NCCP.

Recommendation 3

The report recommends that the outcomes of National Chinese Curriculum be assessed at suitable periods after its initial implementation and revised, if necessary, to meet the changing contexts of Chinese language education in Australian schools.

2.1.5 National Framework for Languages at Senior Secondary Level (NAFLaSSL)

NAFLaSSL originated from the Australasian Curriculum Assessment and Certification Agencies (ACACA) forums of the early 1980s. It has been funded by the Australian Commonwealth government (through DEET) since 1987. The aims of the project were to produce a national framework for the assessment of languages at senior secondary level, which would be acceptable to the different Australian State and Territory authorities represented in ACACA and would:

a consist of an up-to-date curriculum document which emphasises the purposeful use of language, which can be used by syllabus writers and teachers;
b provide a basis for increasing the compatibility and consistency in the assessment of languages, both in and between Australian States and Territories;
c give increased access to the study of languages while providing the basis for the development of syllabuses and assessment tasks which can be used in not only in one State, but in all Australian States and Territories;
d provide increased opportunities for the co-operative production of shared syllabuses and assessment tasks;
e enable Australian senior secondary assessment authorities to give responsibility for setting and marking the annual assessment in any given language to a single State or Territory.

These NAFLaSSL aims outline a commitment to a framework that offers compatibility, portability, access and participation, planning and rationalisation consultation, co-operation and collaboration.

NAFLaSSL proposed that there be three levels of syllabuses and assessment in languages at senior secondary level, allowing students with little or no previous knowledge, with some previous knowledge and with substantial previous knowledge of the language to study and be assessed at an appropriate level. NAFLaSSL therefore distinguished three levels of final assessment for senior secondary language courses: The Accelerated (for students entering at Year 11), the Extended (for students at Year 11 who have studies the language from Year 7 or 8), and the Specialist Studies Level (for students with an extended knowledge of the language).

The Asian Studies Council commissioned the NAFLaSSL Project to develop guidelines for final-year senior secondary assessment at the extended level for Chinese, Japanese and Indonesian. The project was to ensure that these guidelines were acceptable nationally to senior assessment and curriculum authorities, and that they were consistent with the National Curriculum Projects themselves.

As of 1992, draft assessment guidelines for Asian languages at the Extended level have been drafted. These guidelines cover both external and internal assessment. They are consistent with available *National Chinese Curriculum Project* materials produced for the secondary level and have the

potential to be nationally acceptable to senior secondary assessment and curriculum authorities.

In South Australia these guidelines have served successfully in the redevelopment of senior secondary syllabuses in Chinese, Japanese, and Indonesian at the extended level by the Senior Secondary Assessment Board of South Australia and have been accredited for implementation in 1993.

The NAFLaSSL project also investigated the possibility of co-operation between Australian senior secondary assessment and curriculum authorities in relation to curriculum development and assessment in Chinese, Japanese and Indonesian at the Specialist Studies Level.

However, a number of important obstacles stand in the way of the successful implementation of a truly compatible and portable framework - primarily the differences in assessment structures and syllabi from State to State.

Recommendation 4
The report recommends that State and Territory authorities support the aims and principles of the NAFLaSSL Framework and that obstacles standing in the way of the successful implementation of the framework be removed.

2.1.6 The Finn, Carmichael and Mayer Committee Reports

There is little doubt that there are now pressures on educational bodies to re-assess their frameworks and begin the process of reform and renewal to meet the needs of young people emerging into a changing and more competitive local and international work environment. Recent reports such as the Finn Report, the Mayer Committee Report and the Carmichael Report may well prove to be a watershed for Australian education. The perception of these reports (as well as a number of other bodies such as Australian Education Foundation) is that the proportion of students in the 15-19 age group participating in general or vocational educational programs is too small, and changes need to be made in the types of educational offerings, the contexts in which these are offered and the nature of curriculum itself, to meet these changing needs.

Finn and Carmichael suggest that the present educational structure does not provide a suitable basis to enable a close relationship between school courses, TAFE offerings, other further education and employment for the 70 percent of students that do not at least initially seek tertiary places. To bring about the necessary changes, the Finn Report suggests the development of a national framework of employment-related Key Competencies. These Key Competencies then have clear implications for national curriculum principles. Recommendation 4.1 calls for a curriculum which is "clear as to the expected outcomes of knowledge, skills and attitudes", and outcomes which "must be explicitly structured into frameworks which, where relevant, are compatible across the school and TAFE/training sectors to allow for consistent and credible assessment and reporting on student achievement in the Key Competencies".

The Mayer Committee's principal task, at this stage, has been to define and refine these employment-related Key Competencies. The results will be forthcoming in the near future.

The Carmichael Report, *The Australian Vocational Certificate Training System* produced by the Employment and Skills Formation Council of the National Board of Employment, Education, and Training, proposes a certification process that focuses on "outcomes, the attainment and demonstration of specified knowledges, skills by an individual, rather than inputs, such as time served" (Recommendation 6). Students would be able to acquire vocational competencies to various levels (for example year 11 and 12 students in senior colleges would be able to acquire vocational competencies to AVC level 1). Recommendation 15 calls for the development of a network of senior colleges, TAFE Colleges and community providers of "off the job" education and training so as to provide a flexible delivery of vocational education and training.

Although LOTEs are not initially within the framework of the employment-related Key Competencies (an omission that this paper sees as a major shortcoming of this series of reports), Finn (4.4) does recommend that "The Australian Education Council (AEC) and the Ministers of Education, Employment and Training (MOVEET) keep the status of LOTE as an employment-related competence under review, with the possibility of setting an appropriate national target for LOTE competencies and there are various other Key Competencies which LOTEs may prove to be important features."

There is, of course, much in these reports that is open to debate. However, that is not within this scope of this report and would require a much more detailed analysis than we have offered here. It is, however, crucial that we note that much that has been recommended in the Finn Report has been taken seriously enough by the AEC for them to establish the Mayer Committee to sort out the more practical issues of achieving Finn's recommendations.

For Chinese, and indeed for other LOTEs, we must ask what changes to the current approaches to content, teaching strategies and assessment are needed in the light of these greater vocational orientations. If, as is stated in the vocational approach, a practical "hands on" use of the target language is required, how do we create opportunities in Chinese language given that the opportunities for work experience are limited? Will only those students interested in entering a tertiary institution participate in the study of LOTE? If so, LOTE will have to compete for a much reduced clientele, with only 30 percent of students currently entering tertiary institutions immediately after Year 12. It will therefore be necessary for the LOTE sector to take seriously these potential major changes to post-secondary school education, especially in the area of assessment and curriculum and make sure that LOTE is seen as an important vocational competency.

Recommendation 5
The report recommends that an ability to speak a LOTE should be recognised within the framework of the Australian Vocational Certificates Scheme as an important area of competency.

2.1.7 The Chinese Studies Association of Australia (CSAA)

The CSAA was formed to promote Chinese studies nationally, particularly in higher education. In 1991 the CSAA sought to establish close ties with the primary and secondary sectors. From 1992, the CSAA represents China studies at all three formal educational levels as well as in other sectors. Again, in February 1992, the CSAA put forward the National Strategy for Chinese Studies which included numerous recommendations, many of which will be discussed further by this report. The following is a list of recommendations put forward in the National Strategy.

2.31 The Chinese Studies Association of Australia should be offered representation and effective liaison with the new Asia in Australia Council (AsIA).

2.81 Authorities responsible for educational funding at all levels should recognise the importance of Chinese studies for national development and take this into account in decisions affecting the provision of educational resources.

4.31 Schools should offer Modern Standard Chinese with sufficient time allocation, in appropriate curriculum structures and with sufficient human and other resources to allow the maximum number of second-language learners to proceed to Year 12 Assessment.

4.32 Guidelines should be developed to assist schools teaching Chinese to implement recommendation 4.31.

4.33 Schools in all districts should be assisted by all state sectors to form clusters, to ensure that the study of Chinese and the continuity of study are available within each district.

4.34 The study of Chinese for credit should be made available nationally through distance education at primary, secondary and tertiary levels.

4.41 Background and second-language students of Chinese should be separated in schools and both streams should be offered classes appropriate to their levels.

4.51 ACACA and its individual authorities should address and solve the problems posed by disincentives affecting the wider study of Chinese language at Year 12 level.

4.52 At Year 12 level all assessment authorities should offer Chinese at Accelerated, Extended and Specialist Studies Level in accordance with the National Assessment Framework for Languages at Senior Secondary Level (NAFLaSSL).

4.53 Candidate achievement in school language programmes should be linked to a valid and reliable proficiency scale for Modern Standard Chinese and the result reported in terms of that scale.

4.61 Teaching resources should be developed for Chinese at primary level, especially for background learners.

4.62 Teaching resources should be developed for intensive Chinese language courses in the final two years of high school.

4.71 The structure and crediting of undergraduate courses in Chinese should reflect the longer time required to master Chinese compared with European languages.

4.72 The minimum language proficiency for teaching Chinese in schools should be ASLPR 3 across all four micro-skills.

4.73 School teachers should have continued access to language development through inservice activities and study tours to communities speaking Standard Chinese.

4.81 Special funds should be made available to introduce Chinese to Tasmanian and Northern Territory tertiary institutions.

4.82 Special funds should be made available to introduce Chinese language courses in new universities formed in consequence of the rationalisation of the Australian tertiary education system.

4.83 Distance-education materials and computer-aided instruction materials should be developed for delivery through NDEC and other means.

4.91 Teacher-training courses for teachers of Modern Standard Chinese should be designed and implemented as a top priority. Teacher education should include in-service education stressing language competence and pedagogical innovation (including computer-aided instruction).

4.92 Special bridging courses should be developed for native and other competent speakers of Standard Chinese who wish to become teachers.

4.101 Proficiency scales and testing instruments should be developed for Chinese language teaching at tertiary level, results should be disseminated to Chinese language teachers in all institutions and appropriate in-servicing in their implementation should be provided.

4.103 Regular meetings of tertiary-level Chinese language teachers should be held to identify special needs, set appropriate standards and oversee their implementation across institutions.

4.111 Initiatives already underway in the tertiary sector to introduce four-year language degrees, with one year in-country, should be supported by appropriate financial incentives to universities and colleges to compensate for the additional costs entailed.

4.112 For tertiary students requiring high language proficiency on exit (minimum ASLPR3 in all macroskills), degree courses should be restructured to allow sufficient time for the task, including a preliminary intensive year and accredited in-country experience of at least six months.

4.113 Financial support should be made available for tertiary students attempting to achieve high levels of proficiency in Modern Standard Chinese.

4.121 Courses in Modern Standard Chinese for Special Purposes (MSCSP) should be developed and should feed into undergraduate and postgraduate awards.

4.131 An Institute of Modern Chinese as a Foreign Language should be established, perhaps as an affiliated body of the National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia (NLLIA), to engage in research in linguistics, curriculum design and methods appropriate to the teaching and assessment of Chinese.

4.141 Commonwealth and state initiatives for enhancing the quality of tertiary Asian language courses should include the development of teaching materials based on communicative techniques, and infused with Australian as well as Chinese content.

4.142 Support should be provided for the development of a wide range of teaching resources for tertiary Chinese-language courses designed to meet the specific requirements of business, government, scholarship and the professions.

5.21 There should be greater co-ordination on the part of government, institutional, business and professional bodies in the consolidation and expansion of exchange programs.

5.31 Adequate standards of funding should be set for exchange agreements and a rational system should be devised for implementing these standards.

6.12 The position of National Information and Resources Officer for Chinese Studies should be established.

6.13 A National Chinese Studies Database should be established.

6.21 A plan of action should be formulated to highlight the usefulness of employing China-literate people in the business, tourist, media and professional areas.

6.22 Representatives from business, tourist, media and professional areas should be consulted in the design of Chinese language courses targeted to their needs.

7.21 The Asia Education Foundation and ALLC should give as high a priority to non-language as to language studies.

7.32 The ALLC should continue the funding of all existing Modern Standard Chinese curriculum initiatives through to full implementation.

7.33 The Asia Education Foundation and ALLC should seek assistance from the various State Education Departments or Ministries to contribute

towards implementing this National Strategy and initiatives arising from it.

7.34 The Asia Education Foundation and ALLC should seek to involve other organisations, such as the Australia-Council, the Australia-China Business Association, professional and other community associations, to help realise this National Strategy.

8.21 The Australia-China Council should consider ways in which it can contribute to the implementation of this National Strategy.

8.31 The Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee, State Vice-Chancellors' committees and individual Vice-Chancellors and Deans should be consulted in processes leading to implementation of this National Strategy.

8.41 The Chinese Studies Association of Australia should co-operate closely with the Asian Studies Association of Australia, other relevant national professional associations including the Australian Federation of Modern Languages Teachers and The History Teachers' Association of Australia, and with all state-based professional associations in implementing this National Strategy.

Recommendation 6
The report recommends that all of the China Studies Association of Australia recommendations outlined in Section 2.1.7 of this report should be considered for implementation.

2.1.8 Asian Studies Council

The Asian Studies Council (ASC) existed from 1986 until 1991. It was established under the auspices of DEET and its administration was within that Department. Its charter was to increase community awareness and understanding of Asia at all levels, and especially within the education sector. It developed a concept of "Asia Literacy", which has had some currency and influence in Australia in recent years. The Chair of the Council, Dr Stephen FitzGerald, defined an Asia literate person as

> one who at the end of schooling will know sufficient of the history, geography, politics, economics and culture of Asia so that they may:
> - be simply well informed;
> - be confident and competent regional citizens, be at ease with Asia;
> - understand the dynamics of the region and in particular Australia's place in it
> - make informed decisions on their own behalf and through national decision-making processes to have a productive interaction with Asia.

Although the definition does not mention languages specifically, it certainly implies importance attached to their study. In fact, the ASC allocated more of its money throughout its life to language than to non-language studies.

One of the first tasks of the ASC was to establish six National Language Projects. All six projects were focused on particular States or Territories, the Chinese project being established in the Victorian Ministry of Education. There are two major parts of the National Chinese Curriculum Project (NCCP), the primary and secondary.

The main aim task of the NCCP was to lay out a framework along the Australian Language Levels guidelines, for the teaching of Chinese in Australia at primary and secondary level. In fact it has gained some credit overseas, especially in Canada, where there have also been attempts to expand the teaching of Asian languages. The NCCP will be ready for use in the first half of 1993 and is discussed in more detail later in the report.

Other than the national curriculum projects, the Council allocated a considerable amount of money to training teachers in Asian languages, including Chinese. Its biggest single project in the field of language teaching materials was *Dragon's Tongue*, a series of 19 television programs produced by the Australian Broadcasting Corporation and Griffith University in the field of Chinese language and life, which aimed to provide supplementary material for students learning Chinese at secondary level. The overall approach is communicative: it integrates some documentary material in English with numerous mini-dramas in Chinese and small-scale interviews in Chinese. The language used is authentic and natural. Most of the series is set in China, and the bulk of it was filmed in and around Beijing. However, there are also scenes which are set in Australia. The nineteen programs were first screened as a totality in the first half of 1991, but the ABC intends to re-screen them in 1993. Considering that its life was only five years, the ASC can claim to have succeeded in its aims. The Council's final report to the Minister for Employment, Education and Training, who was at that time John Dawkins, stated:

> The Council considers that it has made substantial progress towards the original goals proposed in the Strategy. It has witnessed an increase in the number of students studying Asian languages at the school level. Primary school enrolments have increased from 1 to 3 percent. Secondary school enrolments have also more than doubled from 3 to 7 percent. At the higher education level, enrolments in Asian languages and studies have increased by approximately 25 percent since 1988. The increase in Asian language has been particularly dramatic at the tertiary level - 50 percent since 1988.
>
> (the above quote, as well as a list of all the projects, is to be found in *Report by the Asian Studies Council to the Minister for Employment, Education, and Training, the Hon J S Dawkins, MP* (Asian Studies Council, June 1991, Attachment A, section 3.1.)

The last meeting of the ASC was in the middle of 1991. The Government decided to establish three bodies to fulfil its function: the Australian Language and Literacy Council (ALLC), the Asia Education Foundation and

the Asia in Australia Council (AsIA). The former body will look after languages in general, not merely Asian languages. The second body will focus all its attention on the sub-tertiary level and entirely on non-language studies. It will be managed by a consortium of Asialink at the University of Melbourne, and the Curriculum Corporation, a body jointly owned by the Commonwealth, State and Territory governments (with the exception of the NSW government) with a charter to publish approved work in the curriculum area. The third body, AsIA, has as its charter to foster more effective links between Australia and Asia in the education, training, economic and employment spheres.

With relation to the second of these bodies, the Key Centre for Asian Languages and Studies at Griffith University and the University of Queensland has played a substantial role in the development of curriculum materials in Chinese. The Key Centre was established in 1988 by DEET for an initial term ending in 1991, but has been extended until the end of 1994.

One of the main products for which the Key Centre is now responsible is the *Hanyu* series, currently in the final stages of preparation. This is designed for secondary school students in Australia with no previous Chinese study but is also used in other countries, such as the United States. At present, three volumes of *Hanyu* have been published by Longman Cheshire. Of these, the first two have been or will be revised into three volumes, and the revised *Hanyu 1* was published in time for use in the 1993 school year. Each volume contains a students' book, a teacher's book, a practice book and an audiotape. There will eventually be four, or possibly five, volumes in the *Hanyu* series.

The other products of the Key Centre in the field of Chinese language curriculum development are associated with *Dragon's Tongue* television series. The Key Centre has produced audiotapes and complete sets of scripts, including characters, romanised Chinese and English translations, and these have been published and sold by the ABC. In addition, the Key Centre has produced and published curriculum support materials for ten of the nineteen programs, showing how the programs can best be used. Curriculum support materials for the remaining nine programs will be published before the end of 1992.

The Key Centre is also currently developing a set of cultural materials under the ILOTES program (1992-1993), that will provide a broader cultural base for language learning. The project aims to develop a kit of language activities, resources and information on Chinese culture for classroom activities. The kit will be based on the major common themes in the teaching units, work programs and Chinese language texts used in Australian schools. The kit will provide up to 12 units each on one of these cultural themes. Each unit will be separated into three sections:

a an in-depth background to the cultural feature, (eg food, restaurants and eating, giving a history as well as the situation in contemporary China);
b a range of communicative language activities based within the context of this aspect of the culture;
c a set of authentic resources, games, posters and colour photographs that will support the activities.

Recommendation 7
The report recommends that the Federal Government maintain financial support for the Australian Education Foundation (AEF) at least at its present levels until at least the end of the century and that the AEF should allocate a substantial proportion of its efforts to China studies.

3.0 Chinese Language in Australian Education

It is worth noting, before the quantitative data on trends are presented, that the project encountered considerable difficulties with the collection of data. The quality of the statistics received from institutions concerning the numbers of enrolments, numbers of teachers and courses available was uneven and often presented in forms that did not allow cross-comparison. A number of institutions could not or would not provide any data on the LOTE that was taught in their own institution. Some of the data presented here has been supplemented or replaced with comment, opinion or generalisation from informed personal within the specific institutions. This has proved frustrating to those collecting the data and writing the report. Policy formulation for issues as important as Australia's LOTE policy *should* be based on data as accurate and of as high a quality as possible. There is now a pressing need to standardise the record keeping processes of these institutions on a national level for all sectors of LOTE delivery.

Recommendation 8
The report recommends that the Federal and State governments implement national standardised reporting practices for educational institutions, so that accurate and complete data is available on LOTEs in Australia, thereby ensuring policy formulation is determined by the highest quality of information available.

Although Chinese has a long history of use as a community language in Australia, its history in formal education institutions below tertiary level is very short. The first classes at secondary level were offered in Victoria in 1961. The numbers of students that studied the language between 1961 and the mid-80s were extremely small and almost without exception situated in independent schools.

The first significant increases in numbers came in the late 1980s. State education systems for the first time saw the need to widen their horizons to meet the demand of Australia's changing perception of its place within the international arena.

Although the focus of this section is on the recent trends in the study of Chinese, it is necessary to first highlight a number of issues that come about because of the languages' relatively recent arrival within the educational arena.

The fact that Chinese language has only a short history can be seen both as an advantage and a disadvantage. It is an advantage in that much of the teaching of Chinese is determined by methodologies that are more in line with the currently favoured student-centred methodologies and less

influenced by techniques that are now less fashionable. The literature concerning the problems now encountered by traditional LOTEs stresses the continued effects of the vestiges of these less communicative methods (Clyne 1991:23). The materials and resources that have been developed for Chinese consequently tend to be designed within a more communicative framework.

There are, however, a number of important disadvantages that occur because of the short history of Chinese programs in Australian schools.

Australian decision-making on education issues, including LOTE policies, has on occasions proved to be at the forefront of the international arena (Ingram 1991:1). Recent initiatives in the democratisation of curriculum choice, for example, favouring the school community can be seen as a very positive factor in presenting subjects that more efficiently meet local needs.

Chinese is now seen as a language of significance at the national and international levels. However, and this is particularly relevant for Chinese language, the local community tends not to see these wider issues, as they are somewhat removed from the international context. Curriculum and support mechanisms are already in place for existing subjects, and energy and investment are needed to introduce new subjects. As well, there is always the problem of providing continuity for new courses, especially in the area of teacher supply.

Consequently, Chinese language has often been seen as an important part of the curriculum only where there is a large local Chinese community. This in itself is not a negative thing. However, if the aim is to raise the numbers of students studying Chinese language across the whole of Australian schooling, not just those regions where there are concentrations of ethnically Chinese students, then Chinese needs to be studied in a broader context.

Change within bureaucratic systems is often slow and this works to the disadvantage of newly introduced languages. Regional and local LOTE advisers are often trained in traditional LOTEs and although it is not meant to be critical of their efforts, they may not be well placed to carry out the affirmative action needed to implement the new language in an already "perceived to be" congested curriculum.

Teachers from the independent system repeatedly spoke of the support received from the school bureaucracies, especially the principals. It seems to be a rather different situation in the government schools where a number of the teachers interviewed thought that Chinese language was a low priority for the majority of school principals. In many regions principals had preferred Japanese language, but because of the lack of supply of teachers of that language, were forced to take Chinese as the next best Asian language. Before the desired levels of Chinese language can be attained in Australia, these structural and attitudinal difficulties must be overcome.

Most education systems have now realised the national importance of Chinese language, but have had difficulty convincing the regions and schools of this importance, especially when in many states Chinese is often seen as being in competition with Japanese for the role of an Asian language within the curriculum. There is, therefore, a need to continue the marketing of Chinese language to the community at large, and especially the school

community, stressing the importance of the language for Australia's social and economic relationships with the Chinese-speaking world.

3.1 Primary and Secondary Schools - The National Profile

Total numbers of students in the secondary and primary sectors have increased significantly since the introduction of the NPL in 1987. The figures given below display the increase in enrolments in all States and systems in the period 1988-1991. Difficulties in collecting the 1987 data and the fact that most institutions have only partial data for 1992 have limited the overview for the national picture to this period. In 1988, there were a total of 11,295 students of Chinese language in Australian secondary and primary schools. This figure to some extent is misleading, for the numbers had increased significantly in the preceding three years. By 1991, this figure had increased dramatically to approximately 25,500.

There has been a considerable upsurge in the study of Chinese language in the primary sector in Australia. In 1988, approximately 2300 students studied Chinese language at Australian primary schools, while in 1991 over 12,300 students studied the language. This represents an increase of approximately 440 percent. In the secondary sector, numbers had increased from 6,682 in 1988 to 10,122 in 1991, an increase of approximately 52 percent. The upsurge however was not consistent across all states or systems. The figures for the different States and systems are provided in Table 3.

It is worth noting that the Western Australian figures for 1991 may well be swollen by an exceptionally high percentage of visa students.

The total number of students by State is given in Table 4 below.

The dramatic upturn in numbers in the primary sector has not yet had sufficient time to flow on to the post-compulsory secondary levels. Table 4 provides the breakdown of numbers of students at Year 12 for each State in 1991. There are a number of factors that affect retention rates and these are discussed in more depth in Section 4.0. Again it is difficult to ascertain any general trend from these figures apart from mentioning the particularly low retention rates into the senior levels. If as Ingleson stressed, that there was an immediate need for the consolidation of the "top end" of language learning, these small numbers underline the failure of initiatives since the publication of his report, to achieve these gains. The percentages of all students at Year 12 level for each State that are studying Chinese given in Table 5.

State	Year	Government Primary	Government Secondary	Independent Primary	Independent Secondary	Catholic Primary	Catholic Secondary
SA	1988	355	572	108	65	141	110
	1991	2 484	869	612	477	NDA	18
	% change	600	52	467	634	-	-84
Qld	1988	969	225	0	329	0	0
	1991	3479	1243	315	722	74	404
	% change	259	452	-	1195	-	-
Vic	1988	454	1 390	113	1 891	151	0
	1991	3 069	1 568	2 051	3 651	0	300
	% change	576	12.8	1715	93	-100	-
NSW	1988	459	1 103	0	137	0	0
	1991	1 488	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA
	% change	224	-	-	-	-	-
Tas	1988	0	49	0	35	0	0
	1991	0	47	0	59	0	0
	% change	0	-4	0	68	0	0
WA*	1988	15	246	0	(80)	1 710	49
	1991	(120)	(600)	79	(200)	1 057	169
	% change	(700)	(143)	-	(150)	-38	245
NT	1988	138	111	0	0	0	0
	1991	164	127	0	0	0	0
	% change	18	14	0	0	0	0
ACT	1988	0	38	0	332	0	0
	1991	173	124	0	83	0	0
	% change	-	226	0	-75	0	0
Total	1988	2 390	3 734	221	2 789	2 002	159
Total	1991	10 847	4 239	2 978	4 992	1 132	891
	% change	350	14	1247	79	-43	463

Table 3
( ) Estimated figures
Trends in enrolments

State	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	NT	ACT	Total
Student numbers	1488	10,369	6 237	2 331	4 460	106	191	380	25,562

Table 4
Total number of students studying Chinese by State-1991
** Note: NSW figures not complete*

State	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	NT	ACT	Total
Student numbers at Year 12	391	616	44	80	192	34	24	11	1392

Table 5
Total number of students studying Chinese at Year 12 by State, 1991
(Source: DEET statistics)

State	NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	NT	ACT	Total
Percentage of Year 12 graduates	0.7	1.2	0.1	0.5	1.1	0.9	1.7	0.2	0.8

Table 6
Percentage of students studying Chinese at Year 12 by State-1991
(Source: DEET statistics)

It seems that the number of male students studying Chinese in the primary, pre- and post- compulsory secondary institutions is proportionally higher than has been reported for other LOTES and is equal to, if not greater than, the number of female students (see Appendix C for a gender breakdown of the primary and secondary statistics). However, this does not seem to be the case

in the tertiary sector, where females outnumber the males, though again not in the numbers that are apparent in European languages. Although the numbers of male and female secondary students were similar, females showed considerably higher retention rates in the responses to our attitudinal survey (Section 4.1.3). Approximately fifty-eight percent of males in our survey had discontinued language between Year 10 and 11, while only 35.5 percent of females discontinued.

The high proportion of males may be accounted for by the large numbers of Chinese language students enrolled at large independent boys' schools. These independent boy's schools have a relatively long history of teaching Chinese and, therefore, have well established and resourced programs and administrations sympathetic to the role Chinese language can play in Australian education. Many of these schools also have a primary school attached, so students are able to start Chinese language earlier and are guaranteed continuity into the higher levels. As well, language has seen relatively high retention rates into postcompulsory education. A number of teachers at these schools noted that it was the better students who continued with language, therefore assuring good results at exit levels for the school and enticing more students to continue studying the language. These schools may offer suitable structures for the other sectors to model their own programs on.

Within the State sectors, as well, the numbers of males are at least equal to the numbers of females. This characteristic was also reflected in the survey of attitudes discussed in Section 4.0. The survey found that the female students had a higher instrumental motivation, and linked Chinese language with a career more often than males.

State initiatives in making Chinese available to primary school students have had encouraging results in Queensland, Victoria, South Australia and Western Australia. Many of these schools are part of cluster systems feeding into a local high school.

Recommendation 9
The report recommends that State and national initiatives aim to raise the numbers of Chinese language students within the primary and secondary sectors to those of the most popular European languages. This should be achieved not at the expense of other languages, but through an intensive recruitment process for LOTE as a whole.

The report will now look at the individual States in more detail. Due to the lack of complete data, it has been impossible to provide a comprehensive quantitative analysis of the trends.

3.1.1 South Australia

The languages policy of the South Australia Department of Education reaffirms its commitment to the study of languages other than English in South Australian schools in the document *Linking People Through Languages* (LPTL). The document states that by 1995 all students in primary schools will be learning a language other than English as part of their formal

education. In secondary schools, all students will have access to the study of LOTE.

The implementation of the languages policy of the South Australia Education Department is determined by the Curriculum Guarantee *Educating for the 21st Century* and the *System Wide Management for the Provision of Languages Other Than English.*

These documents identify the following priorities:

- the opportunity for students to maintain and develop their mother tongue;
- the opportunity for all students to learn at least one LOTE R-7;
- access for all students to a LOTE at the secondary level;
- reasonable spread and balance across the state of the eight identified languages of wider learning: Modern standard Chinese, French, German, Modern Greek, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese and Spanish.

The Curriculum Guarantee has:

> quantified the salary component and the minimum instruction time that LOTE programs will be allocated in each junior and primary school. It recommends that at least half of the overall non-instructional time (NIT) resource allocation to junior primary and primary schools will be used for the provision of LOTE (LPTL:14).

The expansion of languages programs in South Australia is being managed through Languages Other Than English Mapping and Planning Project (LOTEMAPP). LOTEMAPP has produced a set of principles which aim to:

- ensure viability of programs;
- achieve a reasonable spread and balance across the State;
- achieve continuity of languages learning from junior primary, and primary to secondary schools wherever possible;
- respond to the language and maintenance and development of students from non-English speaking backgrounds;
- maintain current language programs wherever possible;
- work within the human and material resource context; and
- respond to school community requests whenever possible.

There are three types of LOTE programs in South Australian schools, Second Language, Mother Tongue Development and Bilingual Programs.

The Senior Secondary Assessment Board of South Australia (SSABSA) is currently implementing the South Australian Certificate of Education (SACE) which has two stages. These stages are built around the NAFLaSSL model of providing Accelerated, Extended and Specialist courses. Stage 1 provided a Broad Field Framework with three Extended Subject Frameworks for modern languages (including Chinese), classical languages and ESL. Stage 2, which began in 1991, aims to provide a set LOTE syllabuses to cover all languages offered in South Australia. The LOTE syllabus for Modern Standard Chinese is being developed in accordance with the National Curriculum, but adapted to South Australian conditions and will be implemented in 1993.

The South Australian Government has an excellent LOTE policy with a set of practical implementation guidelines. This, coupled with an active Chinese language teachers association and a number of enthusiastic individuals, has been an important feature in the relative success for Chinese in South Australia. Numbers in the government primary sector have over the years 1988-91 increased by a healthy 600 percent, in the government secondary sector by a more modest 52 percent. Growth in the independent sector, as well, has been good with increases for the primary and secondary sectors, being 467 percent and 634 percent respectively. In total numbers South Australia with approximately 4,500 students studying Chinese is rated 4th among States in terms of total numbers. A reflection of the relative quality of the State's programs (public and independent) is that it had a high number of Year 12 Chinese language graduates with respect to its overall numbers. This number, 1.1 percent of the total number of students at Year 12, is still too small to provide an adequate base of fluent Chinese speakers that South Australia needs. There is also a need to encourage the Catholic schools to establish more Chinese language programs.

School Type		1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
Secondary	Number of schools		6	10	12	NDA	9
	Male enrolment	220	244	320	419	NDA	NDA
	Female enrolments	352	392	362	450	NDA	NDA
	Total enrolments	572	716	682	869	NDA	NDA
Primary	Number of schools	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA	17	17
	Total enrolments	43	355	999	1407	2484	NDA
	No of teachers	2	6	11	12	12	NDA

Table 7
Student numbers in Government schools

School	1987	1990
Secondary	1.4	7.7
Primary	2.8	7.8

Table 8
Percentage of LOTE students studying Chinese in 1987 & 1990

Year	Primary	Compulsory Secondary	Post-compulsory Secondary
1987	7.0	72.8 (78.3)	20.2 (21.7)
1990	62.2	31.3 (82.8)	6.5 (17.2)

Table 9
Percentage of students of Chinese at each level of study
Note: Figures in brackets represent the percentage of total secondary enrolment in Chinese language at that level.

In 1986 the South Australian Commission for Catholic Schools published a policy statement entitled *Catholic Education for a Multicultural Society in Australia*. This document acknowledged the importance of LOTE in the school curriculum. The Catholic Education Office consolidated the aims outlined in this document into a *Languages Other Than English Policy* in 1990. Although the policy did not provide a rigourous implementation plan, it did recommend that schools, in planning LOTE programs, should consider:

- the position of LOTE education in relation to the school's existing policy on language development and multiculturalism within the ethos of the Catholic school;
- the language background of the school population;
- parental preferences and expectations;
- availability of specialist LOTE teachers;
- the continuity of the program within the school and across schools;
- the provision of adequate time for language development;
- the possibility of using resources beyond the school context;
- the availability of support services and adequate resources;
- alternative modes of organising a LOTE program; and
- the type of LOTE program appropriate for the school.

School Type		1988	1989	1990	1991
Secondary	Number of schools	3	2	4	9
	Male enrolment	24	89	202	258
	Female enrolments	41	5	102	219
	Total enrolments	65	94	304	477
Primary	Number of schools	3	2	3	4
	Total enrolments	108	148	291	612
	No of teachers	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA

Table 10
Student numbers in Independent schools
Note: No data is available for 1992.

Year	Primary	Compulsory Secondary	Post-compulsory Secondary
1988	62.4	34.1 (90.8)	3.5 (10.2)
1991	56.2	33.0 (75.3)	10.8 (24.7)

Table 11
Percentage of students of Chinese at each level of study
Note: Figures in brackets represent the percentage of total secondary enrolment in Chinese language at that level.

Chinese Language is no longer offered in any South Australian Catholic primary schools.

School Type		1988	1991	1992
Secondary	Number of schools	NDA	NDA	3
	Male enrolment	105	12	
	Female enrolments	5	6	
	Total enrolments	110	18	
Primary	Number of schools	NDA	NDA	0
	Total enrolments	141	NDA	0
	No of teachers (non-government)	NDA	NDA	0

Table 12
Student numbers in Catholic schools
Note: No data is available for 1989 and 1990.

School	1987	1990
Secondary	4.1	NDA

Table 13
Percentage of LOTE students studying Chinese in 1987 & 1990.

3.1.2 Queensland

The Department of Education in Queensland has given first priority to five languages: Chinese, French, German, Indonesian and Japanese. However, Spanish, Italian and Vietnamese are also provided for. In the primary and secondary sectors, 472 and 122 schools respectively teach a LOTE. Currently the most popular languages within the government system are Japanese and German, although significant increases have been seen in Chinese, and to a lesser extent Indonesian. Chinese is taught in eight of the eleven regions, with only the North Western, Peninsular and South Western Regions without primary or secondary Chinese. The majority of schools that offer Chinese are concentrated in the South-east corner of the State, and little Chinese is studied in schools outside regional centres. The Languages and Cultures Unit (LACU) however is endeavouring to introduce language programs throughout the State.

LACU was established in 1989, with the responsibility of the operational and policy/curriculum development functions for language education in government schools. In 1991-1992 financial year its operating budget was $10.47 million, while in 1992-1993 this was expected to increase to $14 million.

The State government's language policy is encapsulated in the document *A Statement From the Minister: Languages Other Than English*. The former Minister for Education, Mr Paul Braddy, in his statement, described the Queensland foreign language program as "perhaps the most important of our long term reforms, and a central program in our education strategy. Its aim is to bring the learning of languages to the forefront of mainstream education"(1991:2).

To achieve this, he outlined six principles that were to underpin the long-term development of what he called a *creative learning environment* for Queensland schools. These principles were:

a expansion of Languages other than English in Queensland Schools;
b continuity in learning languages;
c quality in teaching and learning;
d diversity in methods and materials;
e balance among languages;
f integration of languages teaching with cultural and other studies.

A central feature of the statement is an emphasis on the expansion of LOTE into Queensland primary schools. A major effort was made in 1991 to expand language teaching in Year 6 and the government aims to have LOTE available to all students in Years 6, 7 and 8 by 1994 and to all grades in primary schools by the year 2000.

The initiatives of the government have met with some success. There are now 472 primary schools (44 percent of all primary schools) and 122 secondary schools (72 percent of all secondary schools) which teach a LOTE. The numbers of students involved in LOTE programs has increased from 45,378 in 1989 to 68,026 in 1991, an increase of 50 percent (Department of Education statistics).

This reflects a significant expansion of language learning in Queensland primary schools since 1989. In that year, 8600 students studied a LOTE, while this number had increased to 30,000 in 1991. Of this 30,000, 37 percent studied Japanese, 16 percent German, 12 percent Italian, 10 percent Chinese and 5 percent Indonesian.

Within the secondary sector, 38,000 students studied a LOTE in 1991, of which 34 percent took Japanese, 26 percent French, 30 percent German and 3.2 percent Chinese.

Continuity is meant to be a central principle in the implementation of language programs in Queensland schools. The government aims to create a sustained environment for languages that overcomes many of the past difficulties in transition between the primary and secondary levels (and on to tertiary). The Minister acknowledged that this meant a need for a good deal of thoughtful planning between primary and secondary schools on a regional and local basis so that these transitional difficulties could be minimised.

This continuity has been assured through the establishment of cluster systems, where language teachers were centred at a secondary school and visited feeder primary schools to provide language courses. In the first semester of 1992 there were 165 clusters, which brought together 784 schools. These schools received $412,000 for program implementation (LOTE Status Report 1992:1). Braddy (p.6), in his statement, however, noted that these cluster systems needed to be supplemented in the future with specialist primary school language teachers. This has implications for pre-service teacher training and for the planning of language offerings that needs to take place between local primary and secondary schools.

Raising the quality of language teaching and learning in Queensland schools was seen as the greatest challenge facing the government language strategy. The Ministerial statement explicitly stated that the aim was to upgrade the status and professionalism of language teaching in schools. The statement acknowledged that the quality of teaching provision in Queensland language classes varied enormously. To change this situation the government has made a commitment to a major investment in the professional development of language teachers.

In the 1990-1991 budget, the Government allocated $1 million for in-service programs. In 1991, 15 teachers were sent on exchange to the PRC for a year to gain proficiency in the language and to familiarise themselves with Chinese culture. This in-country language study was followed by an intensive six months of language study at Griffith University. Twenty exchange teachers from China provided classroom support for Queensland teachers as well as being involved in the development of new resources and teacher in-service programs. This exchange program will continue for the near future. In

1992-1993 the government aims to provide co-ordinated inservice programs in the areas of proficiency and teaching methodology as part of its LOTE Professional Development Program.

A total of 31 tertiary scholarships were awarded for 1992 to intending teachers of languages other than English in their final and second last years of tertiary study.

LACU has developed a set of materials for Chinese study in the primary schools to support the staged implementation of Chinese into Year 6 and 7. Kits of materials for Year 6 students in the five priority languages plus Italian have been completed and distributed. For Chinese, this kit consisted of a teacher instruction book, student activity books, audio tapes and video tapes. Work on the Year 7 kits for 1993 is almost completed. These materials have gained significant interest from other education systems in Australia as well as some overseas.

To address the problem of low levels of Chinese study in the State, LACU in 1991 produced a promotional package that included a 10 minute video and printed materials. The package aimed to raise the profile of Chinese language within the various regions and school communities themselves. LACU invited Professors Stephen FitzGerald and Nancy Viviani to participate in a statewide visit to promote Asian languages.

In 1992 there were 31 teachers of Chinese language in 50 government primary and 16 secondary schools.

To be registered as a teacher of Chinese in Queensland, applicants are required to have a teaching qualification plus Australian citizenship or permanent residency. Applicants whose first language is not English must also pass an English proficiency test.

There is no formal professional body of Chinese language teachers in Queensland.

In 1992 the number of students studying Chinese language in government secondary schools made up 4.9 percent of the total number studying a LOTE. This represented an increase of 775 percent over the 1988 figures. In the government primary sector for 1991, Chinese students represented 7.4 percent of the total number, a 259 percent increase over the 1988 figure. *(Note: Data for 1992 was not available at the time of writing.)* During this time, the total numbers of students studying LOTE increased by over 50 percent (see figure 3.9).

The enthusiasm with which LACU has tackled the difficult task of increasing the study of Chinese in Queensland, as reflected by the number of initiatives specifically aimed at Chinese is to be strongly applauded. Initiatives into the professional development of LOTE teachers, as well, deserve a great deal of credit. It seems though, that Chinese may have reached the limits of its acceptance by the school communities and a continued marketing of Chinese is necessary. A major problem for the education department will be that of transition, both into the secondary school and after Year 10. Queensland, in 1991, had the lowest percentage of students at Year 12 level that were studying Chinese (0.1 percent).

The independent schools have a long tradition of Chinese language provision in the State and their enrolments are healthy and their programs generally of a high quality.

School Type		1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
Secondary	Number of schools	1	3	6	8	10	16
	Male enrolment	NDA	116	244	503	615	942
	Female enrolments	NDA	109	273	533	628	1026
	Total enrolments	NDA	225	513	1036	1243	1968
Primary	Number of schools	0	11	21	25	26	49
	Total enrolments	NDA	969	NDA	1022	3479	NDA
	No of teachers (Primary & Secondary)	1	5	13	14	20	31

Table 14
Student numbers in Government schools

Year	Primary	Compulsory Secondary	Post-compulsory Secondary
1988	81.0	18.8 (100.0)	0.0 (0.0)
1991	73.7	25.5 (96.7)	0.9 (0.3)

Table 15
Percentage of students of Chinese at each level of study
Note: Figures in brackets represent the percentage of total secondary enrolment in Chinese language at that level.

Within the Independent system there is no general LOTE policy. Policy and its implementation are carried out at the school level. It is obvious though, that many of the schools, particularly the more established ones, value the intellectual, cultural and economic outcomes of second language learning. Indeed, in many independent schools LOTE is already part of the core curriculum.

Chinese language has been taught in the Independent system at the secondary level since the early 1970s. Primary classes in Chinese however have only been offered since 1988. Teachers in Independent schools were generally happy with the support the language received from the school community.

The Association of Independent Schools provides support for professional development and information on materials and resources as well as other teaching issues.

As with the Independent schools, Catholic Education in Queensland does not have any systemic LOTE policy. Decision-making about curriculum is made at the school community level. There have been no initiatives to increase the number of students studying Chinese. Chinese language study is not strong, in either the primary or secondary sectors. Catholic school authorities therefore should be encouraged to introduce Chinese language programs.

School Type		1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
Secondary	Number of schools	NDA	NDA	NDA	8	NDA	13
	Male enrolment	NDA	329	487	518	571	NDA
	Female enrolments	NDA	0	97	47	151	NDA
	Total enrolments	NDA	329	584	565	722	NDA
Primary	Number of schools	0	0	1	1	4	4
	Total enrolments	0	0	258	259	315	NDA
	No of teachers (Primary & Secondary)	2	NDA	7	11	14	NDA

Table 16
Student numbers in Independent schools

Year	Primary	Compulsory Secondary	Post-compulsory Secondary
1989	30.6	60.0 (86.5)	9.4 (13.5)
1991	30.3	61.7 (88.6)	7.9 (11.4)

Table 17
Percentage of students of Chinese at each level of study
Note: Figures in brackets represent the percentage of total secondary enrolment in Chinese language at that level.

School Type		1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
Secondary	Number of schools	0	NDA	NDA	NDA	3
	Male enrolment	0	139	433	404	NDA
	Female enrolments	0	0	0	0	NDA
	Total enrolments	0	139	433	404	NDA
Primary	Number of schools	0	NDA	NDA	1	2
	Total enrolments	0	NDA	NDA	74	
	No of teachers	NDA	NDA	NDA	1	2

Table 18
Student numbers in Catholic schools

School	1988	1991
Secondary	0	3.3

Table 19
Percentage of LOTE students studying Chinese in 1987 & 1990

3.1.3 New South Wales

The Ministerial Working Party on the New South Wales Language Policy, in *Excellence and Equity* (1989), described the 12 priority languages of economic and community importance that will be taught in New South Wales schools. They are Arabic, Modern Standard Chinese, French, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Modern Greek, Russian, Spanish and Vietnamese. Within this large group it was recommended that, in the short term, particular effort should be focused on six of these languages (Japanese,

Modern Standard Chinese, Korean, Indonesian, Russian and Spanish), both because of their new economic relevancy to Australia and their current very limited provision in New South Wales schools.

The Department of Education, the Catholic Education Commission, the NSW Teachers Federation, the Ethnic Affairs Commission, the Independent Teachers Association, the Board of Secondary Education, the Institute of Inspectors of Schools and the Federation of Parents and Citizens Association of New South Wales all argued in their submissions to the Ministerial Working Party that all students should have access to a LOTE. These groups acknowledged that resource difficulties did exist, but did not consider this to be a sufficient reason to relegate LOTE to elective status. It should therefore become part of the core curriculum.

In 1989 there were a number of "Z courses" in modern languages in NSW schools. The working party acknowledged the success of these programs. However, they also argued that to focus only on the last two years of secondary education would be irresponsible. Firstly, this would by-pass those students who leave at Year 10. More importantly, these programs do not give students an experience of language study early enough for them to decide to pursue it for four or six years of schooling.

The government therefore set out the goal that every student should have access to two years of language study in junior secondary school and that a substantially greater number of students than at present would pursue in-depth specialist study of priority languages throughout their whole secondary schooling.

There were of course a number of serious impediments to achieving this goal. There had been a considerable decline in the number of students studying language throughout the 1980s. The proportion of language candidates for the School Certificate fell from 28.5 percent in 1980 to 19.17 percent in 1985 and 17.9 percent in 1989. Only 15.4 percent of the 1989 HSC candidates were enrolled in a LOTE.

This goal was to be achieved through a phased implementation program. While the government schools system will be encouraged to phase in the implementation of the study of LOTE for one year (100 hours) from 1991, it will become mandatory for the School Certificate for the 1996 Year 7 cohort (ie. for the 1999 School Certificate).

The Department stressed that the move to mandatory language study in the junior secondary years required effective co-ordination between language in the primary and secondary sectors. Within the government sector, therefore, schools were to be organised into zones and clusters, staff recruited to these zones and specialist Language Schools established to facilitate easier co-ordination. In the fourth term of 1989, the Department trialled a continuity program across Years 5 to 7 in 12 clusters of primary and secondary schools.

The Language Schools will provide opportunities for students to study at least two LOTEs, including Asian languages. The schools will offer continuity of language study for six years.

By 1991, 16 specialist languages had been established across all regions. Ten Language Planning Consultants had been allocated to the regions. Student and teacher exchange programs had been developed with overseas countries and Overseas Study awards in all priority languages had been expanded.

In 1991, NSW had designated 17 Language High Schools spread throughout New South Wales. Of these only three offered Modern Standard Chinese: Cabramatta, Killara and Killarney. The actual choice of language depended on a number of factors, including local community needs, extent of parent and student interest, existence of feeder primary schools and appropriateness to other courses taught in the school, availability of teachers and opportunities for assistance or sponsorship of particular languages.

The Department noted that two major factors were influencing the slow development of increased study of Modern Standard Chinese in New South Wales schools. Firstly, the majority of Chinese-speaking students spoke Cantonese and found the study of Modern Standard Chinese initially difficult, and secondly, the supply of qualified Modern Standard Chinese teachers remains limited.

The minimum requirement for registration as a language teacher in New South Wales (first teaching subject) was 2/9 of a degree in the specific language and the appropriate language teaching method or modern language method. As a second teaching subject, registered teachers are required to have a minimum of 1/9 of a degree in that language and the appropriate language teaching method.

Approval may be granted to applicants who do not meet the English language requirements set by the the Department for classification as a primary or secondary teacher. These Community Language Teachers will gain certification within two categories.

a The applicant can gain certification as a Specialist Certificated Community Language Teachers provided that applicant:
   1 has been assessed as personally suitable for employment by an authorised Departmental officer;
   2 has demonstrated a sufficient proficiency in the English language to communicate effectively as a Community Language teacher; and
   3 has satisfied the requirements for proficiency in a LOTE as set by the Department.

An applicant in this category may request a review of her/his English proficiency at any time.

b The applicant can gain certification as a Specialist Conditionally two-year trained Certificated Community Language Teacher provided that applicant:
   1 holds either a two-year post-secondary teacher training award or three year teacher training award which is accepted as a teaching qualification in the country in which the award was granted;

2 has been assessed as personally suitable for employment by an authorised Department officer;
3 has demonstrated a sufficient proficiency in the English Language to communicate effectively as a Community Language teacher; and
4 has satisfied the requirements for proficiency in a LOTE as set by the Department.

An applicant in this category will be given a personal prescription which will set out what further academic qualifications are required to enable the applicant to be classified.

Trends in enrolments were difficult to ascertain due to the lack of data. But we can note the sharp decrease in the study of Chinese in the government secondary sector, declining from 1103 in 1988 to 708 in 1990.

School Type		1988	1989	1990	1991
Secondary	Number of schools	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA
	Male enrolment	492	416	259	NDA
	Female enrolments	611	447	449	NDA
	Total enrolments	1103	863	708	NDA
Primary	Number of schools	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA
	No of Teachers	4	5.6	16	16
	Student enrolments	459	793	841	1488

Table 20
Student numbers in Government schools
Note: No data available for 1992

Year	Primary	Compulsory Secondary	Post-compulsory Secondary
1988	29.4	62.0 (87.8)	8.6 (12.2)
1990	54.3	32.7 (71.5)	13.0 (28.5)

Table 21
Percentage of students of Chinese at each level of study
Note: Figures in brackets represent the percentage of total secondary enrolment in Chinese language at that level.

School Type		1988
Secondary	Number of schools	NDA
	Male enrolment	NDA
	Female enrolments	NDA
	Total enrolments	NDA
Primary	Number of schools	NDA
	Total enrolments	137
	No of teachers (non-government)	NDA

Table 22
Student numbers in Independent schools
Note: No data is available for 1989 to 1992.

No data was received from the Catholic schools, although it is known at least one school has an excellent Chinese program.

3.1.4 Victoria

In Victoria, the aims and directions for LOTE policy are encapsulated in the documents *Victoria: Education for Excellence* (Minister for Education and Training) and in *Implementing Languages Other Than English (LOTE) Policy*.

The aim of policy is to make one or more LOTEs available to all students in Victorian schools, and to make second language study requirement for all students in Years 7-10. All secondary schools were required, for the first time in 1992, to make a second language a core study for all students in Year 7. This will be progressively extended to Year 10, allowing for adjustments to teacher supply and arrangements necessary for the reassessment of the balance between Asian and European languages. Under the present District Provision Policy, schools are expected to provide at least two languages in Years 11 and 12.

A strategy has been developed and outlined in *Implementing Languages Other Than English (LOTE) Policy* in which schools will be supported by the School Programs Division and regions working in partnership for the first 12 months to develop plans to implement the Minister's LOTE targets. The implementation paper sees the immediate challenge as being to develop LOTE programs for the compulsory study of LOTE at Year 7 level. The staged implementation of Years 8-10 compulsory study, primary LOTE provision and continuous study of LOTE P-12 are seen as a longer term projects.

The Victorian Department of School Education is committed to the expansion of all languages. However, Chinese is one of the languages to receive major support under the Priority Languages Incentive Program. Specifically for Chinese language, the Victorian Department of Education has undertaken a number of initiatives:

a provision of "above establishment" numbers of teachers to teach Chinese in 15 Primary schools throughout Victoria;
b establishment of two P-12 clusters, each involving two primary schools and one secondary college, supported by a tertiary institution in an attempt to increase demand;
c the adoption of Greek Curriculum Storybooks into Chinese;
d provision of a Chinese Consultant to support the teaching of Chinese in schools;
e the Department has an International Teaching Fellowship Agreement with Jiangsu province in the PRC;
f a number of bilingual programs in primary schools have been established.

Primary teachers must have approved primary teacher qualifications together with a post-Year 12 major study in Chinese language, a LOTE method and at least 33 days of practicum. Background speakers who are

registered primary teachers sit for an accreditation interview and successful interviewees are considered employable in LOTE programs. Secondary teachers must possess a secondary qualification with at least a sub-major in Chinese. This requirement is currently under review and an increase to a major and method study is proposed. Registration requirements for Chinese language teachers are the same as those which apply to all other teachers. Registration is granted by the Teachers' Registration Board, a separate statutory body, and is quite distinct from the employment process of the Ministry.

There are five Chinese Bilingual and Mother Tongue Maintenance Programs in Victorian primary schools.

The trends in enrolments are described in Table 23. Victoria has quite rigourously implemented a number of initiatives to provide an expanded delivery of the language. The State has seen a 259 percent and 1715 percent increase in its government and independent primary schools respectively. Modest growth rates were also seen in the respective secondary sectors. Unfortunately, the Catholic primary sector saw a massive decline in numbers, with all Chinese courses being abandoned.

School Type		1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
Secondary	Number of schools	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA	16
	Male enrolment	684	224	NDA	636	NDA
	Female enrolments	706	296	NDA	932	NDA
	Total enrolments	1390	520	NDA	1568	1391
	Total teachers	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA
Primary	Number of schools	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA	16
	Total enrolments	454	NDA	NDA	3069	1883

Table 23
Student numbers in Government schools

Year	Primary	Compulsory Secondary	Post-compulsory Secondary
1988	NDA	NDA	NDA
1991	66.2	31.5 (93.2)	2.3 (6.8)

Table 24
Percentage of students of Chinese at each level of study
Note: Figures in brackets represent the percentage of total secondary enrolment in Chinese language at that level.

School Type		1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
Secondary	Number of schools	8	NDA	18	24	25
	Male enrolment	1169	NDA	1567	2060	NDA
	Female enrolments	722	NDA	1285	1591	NDA
	Total enrolments	1891	NDA	2762	3651	3495
	Total teachers	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA
Primary	Number of schools	3	NDA	10	11	13
	Total enrolments	113	NDA	1652	2051	2321

Table 25
Student numbers in Independent schools

School	1988	1990	1991
Secondary	5.3	7.8	9.5
Primary	1.4	13.5	13.6

Table 26
Percentage of LOTE students studying Chinese in 1987 & 1990

Year	Primary	Compulsory Secondary	Post-compulsory Secondary
1988	5.6	75.0 (79.6)	19.3 (20.4)
1991	36.0	55.4 (86.6)	8.6 (7.7)

Table 27
Percentage of students of Chinese at each level of study
Note: Figures in brackets represent the percentage of total secondary enrolment in Chinese language at that level.

School Type		1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
Primary	Number of schools	3	2	4	NDA	5
	Total enrolments	151	99	183	NDA	464

Table 28
Student numbers in Catholic schools

3.1.5 Tasmania

The Tasmanian Education Department does not have a formal LOTE policy, although there is one in preparation. The document, *The Study of Languages other than English in Tasmanian Secondary Schools and Colleges: A Policy Statement* states that the aim of the Department's LOTE policy will be to increase the number of students studying Asian languages so that it is at least equivalent to the numbers studying European languages. No Chinese is taught in any of Tasmania's primary schools or Catholic Secondary schools. Most Chinese is taught in Tasmania's secondary colleges at Years 11 and 12. There are no tertiary offerings of Chinese in the State's HEIs. Students therefore have little chance of attaining any real level of proficiency.

There is an urgent need to establish Chinese programs in the primary sector in all Tasmanian schools (see Tables 29-32)

School Type		1988	1989	1990	1991
Secondary	Number of schools	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA
	Total enrolments	49	42	202	4
	Total teachers	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA

Table 29
Student numbers in Government schools

School	1988	1989	1990	1991
Secondary	0.5	0.4	1.7	0.4

Table 30
Percentage of LOTE students studying Chinese in 1987 & 1990

Year	Primary	Compulsory Secondary	Post-compulsory Secondary
1988	0	0	100
1990	0	68.3	31.7

Table 31
Percentage of students studying Chinese at each level

School Type		1988	1989	1990	1991
Secondary	Number of schools	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA
	Total enrolments	35	47	51	59
	Total teachers	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA

Table 32
Student numbers in Independent schools

3.1.6 Western Australia

Although Western Australia does not have a Ministry LOTE policy, it has quite a detailed *LOTE Strategic Plan* which includes details of the background to LOTE in Western Australia, planned outcomes and a staged implementation plan.

The Ministerial Working Party responsible for the *Plan* was asked to report on:

a a rationale for teaching LOTE in schools;
b the needs and provisions for LOTE in Western Australian Schools in light of national developments;
c the priorities, goals and policies required for LOTE to meet the State's needs; and
d guidelines for the implementation of a Ministry policy on LOTE.

The plan was implemented for the first three years of this decade and its progress will be reviewed at the end of 1993 and further goals set for Phase 2 of the *LOTE Strategic Plan (1994-96)*.

The planned outcomes of this *Strategy* that are particularly relevant to the teaching of Chinese, are as follows:

- the progressive introduction of LOTE into the primary and secondary schools so that access to quality LOTE education will be available to all students;
- the promotion and of high-quality LOTE programmes that provide for student entry in early, middle and upper primary years and in Year eight and 11 in secondary schools;
- the promotion and expansion of the teaching of LOTE in primary and secondary schools. In the first instance the languages to be supported are Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian and Japanese; and
- an increased level of public awareness of the value of LOTE education.

By the end of 1993, it is intended that the following results will have been achieved (again only those of direct relevance to Chinese are included):

- the number of primary schools offering quality LOTE programmes will have increased to at least 200;
- the Ethnic Schools Program Policy will be implemented;
- LOTE programs will be offered in all senior high and high schools and in at least ten more district high schools;
- National Project curriculum materials for K-10 Chinese, Indonesian and Japanese will be in use;
- two Centres of Excellence for LOTE will be operating;
- the Saturday School of Languages Policy will be implemented; and
- at least half of all students in Western Australian schools will have access to a LOTE program.

Data for the period is very incomplete for all of the authorities below, hence the figures in brackets represent estimates made by teachers and the Chinese Teachers' Association of Western Australia. No separate figures for the various systems were available for Years 11 and 12, so a breakdown between compulsory and post-compulsory secondary education cannot be given. Large numbers of visa students have been enrolled since 1988 in Western Australian schools, but no figures of the percentages are available. Reliable sources however, have suggested that much of the increase in numbers since that time has been due to these students, and the numbers of non-ethnic Chinese students studying Modern Standard Chinese as a second language remain very small.

Given this situation, Chinese language study is not strong in Western Australia. This is despite a strong Chinese Teachers' Association, as well as a considerable number of university courses in Chinese language offered in the State. Results are also somewhat disappointing with respect to the numbers of students, as a percentage of the total Year 12 cohort, that are studying the language.

In the government schools, the numbers of students have varied considerably over the period 1987-1992, possibly reflecting the fluctuating numbers of visa students entering the system. An interviewed teacher suggested that 85 percent of the current numbers of students studying Chinese are native or background speakers.

School Type		1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
Secondary	Number of schools	4	5	5	6	5	5
	Total enrolments	(300)	246	553	(400)	(600)	(500)
	Total teachers	4	5	5	6	6	6
Primary	Number of schools	2	2	3	3	4	2
	Total enrolments	(50)	(50)	(75)	(85)	(120)	(115)
	No of teachers	1	1	2	2	2	2

Table 33
Student numbers in Government schools

School	1988	1989	1990	1991
Secondary	1.2	5.4	4.4	2.4

Table 34
Percentage of LOTE students studying Chinese in 1987 & 1990

School Type		1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
Secondary	Number of schools	NDA	1	4	6	6	6
	Total enrolments	NDA	(80)	(150)	(200)	(200)	(220)
	Total teachers	NDA	2	4	6	6	6
Primary	Number of schools	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Total enrolments	0	0	0	0	79	88
	No of teachers	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA	1	1

Table 35
Student numbers in Independent schools

School Type		1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
Secondary	Number of schools	NDA	1	2	4	3
	Male enrolment	20	NDA	42	73	NDA
	Female enrolments	29	NDA	34	96	"
	Total enrolments	49	(50)	66	169	170
	Total teachers	NDA	1	2	4	4
Primary	Number of schools	NDA	NDA	NDA	2.9	NDA
	Total enrolments	1710	NDA	1525	1057	566
	No of teachers	NDA	NDA	2	2	2

Table 36
Student numbers in Catholic schools

School	1988	1989	1990	1991
Secondary	NDA	NDA	NDA	2.9
Primary	NDA	NDA	NDA	7.0

Table 37
Percentage of LOTE students studying Chinese in 1987 & 1990

3.1.7 Northern Territory

In 1988 the Northern Territory Department of Education and its Minister endorsed the Northern Territory policy on Languages Other Than English. The Department of Education has developed a 10 year plan to ensure the successful implementation of LOTE programs in the schools of the Territory. The aim of the plan is to achieve implementation of the policy in stages over the next decade. The plan acknowledged that the major difficulty for its successful implementation will be problems such as teacher availability and scarce resources which have been a general problem for education in the State, but has been chronic one for languages in the past.

Support will be provided for LOTE programs with Aboriginal, Chinese, Greek, Indonesian, Italian and Japanese languages given priority. The school's community in consultation with the regional superintendent, and the Languages Centres, in consultation with the Principal Education Officer LOTE, have the responsibility of implementing LOTE programs. Secondary schools and their feeder primary schools must negotiate their choice of language to ensure continuity of learning for a four-year period, the minimum requirement for LOTE programs. Therefore in theory once primary and/or secondary schools have decided to provide a LOTE program it will have to offer this subject for four years.

Although there have been a number of initiatives aimed at increasing the numbers of students studying a language, none were aimed specifically at increasing the numbers of students studying Chinese language. There is an acute shortage of teachers of Asian languages in the Northern Territory. Discussions with teachers have suggested that an increased teacher supply would quickly translate into an increased number of students. The Northern Territory is Australia's closest State or Territory to Asia and there is apparently much interest in Asian culture as well as an active Asian community in the Territory.

School Type		1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
Secondary	Number of schools	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA	2
	Male enrolment	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA	83
	Female enrolments	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA	64
	Total enrolments	111	202	148	125	147
	Total teachers	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA	5
Primary	Number of schools	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA	4
	Total enrolments	138	191	272	164	351
	No of teachers	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA	5

Table 38
Student numbers in Government schools

Chinese language is only taught in the government primary and secondary schools and one Catholic secondary school. The numbers of Chinese as a percentage of the total Year 12 cohort are the highest for any State, but numbers remain very small. There is no Chinese language taught at any level

in the independent schools and the numbers at Catholic schools are less than 10 (commenced 1992). Authorities, therefore, should be encouraged to implement programs in these sectors, especially in the primary schools.

School	1988	1989	1990
Secondary	4.2	9.4	4.1
Primary	4.0	3.5	4.1

Table 39
Percentage of LOTE students studying Chinese in 1988-1990

School Type		1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
Secondary	Number of schools	0	0	0	0	1
	Male enrolment	0	0	0	0	6
	Female enrolments	0	0	0	0	3
	Total enrolments	0	0	0	0	9
	Total teachers	0	0	0	0	1

Table 40
Student numbers in Catholic schools

3.1.8 Australian Capital Territory

At the time this report was being written, a curriculum Policy was about to be published. In the interim period, ACT guidelines for the implementation of second-language learning initiatives have been determined by the position paper, *Languages Other Than English in ACT Government Schools 1990-2000* and its action plan. The position paper sets down five guiding principles:

a The learning of languages is an important element in the education of all students;

b Every student should have the opportunity to learn at least one language other than English for as many years as possible;

c Students should have access to language programs from early primary years since research shows that this age group learn linguistic patterns easily, and their attitudes to other cultures are at a formative age;

d LOTE curriculum should be rigourous, intellectually demanding and of high quality, and leading at least to a minimum of proficiency; and

e LOTE programs should be organised in clusters within each region to offer students the ability to continue their study from kindergarten to Year 12.

The ACT Dept believes that the future development of LOTE in that state should follow the following planning guidelines (6.1.1 to 6.1.6 of the position paper):

a Where schools are considering the introduction of LOTE programs, they should consult at an early stage with their Regional Director, the Director Development Services and the LOTE Consultant.

b As well as offering continuing language programs, schools should consider the option of beginning language programs at various stages such as entry points to high school and college.

c The practice of offering "taster" programs in Year 7 is, in general, not to be recommended, as brief exposure to several languages is generally unproductive.

d The languages to be taught in ACT government schools will be selected from the "languages of wider teaching", defined in the NPL: French, German, Indonesian/Malay, Italian, Japanese, Modern Standard Chinese, Modern Greek and Spanish. Training programs are planned for Thai and Korean, initially at college level or evening college.

e Secondary students should have a choice, preferably within their school, of an Asian and a European language. These languages should be selected according to the needs and resources of the community, in the context of planning and co-ordination.

f Teaching strategies and school organisational practices at the secondary level should be sufficiently flexible to allow articulation of classes for students continuing a LOTE from one level of schooling to another.

These LOTE programs in the ACT schools should follow the following guidelines:

a Schools should select the program model best suited to their needs and resources, in consultation with the LOTE Consultant and their Director of Schools.

b LOTE curriculum should be based on the framework set out in the ALL Guidelines to promote active language use.

c Frequent and adequate contact time should be allowed for programs, as set down in the NPL.

d LOTE programs should, wherever possible, be co-ordinated by a senior teacher with language qualifications and experience.

The ACT, along with national and other State and Territory government departments, is working together on LOTE projects within the endorsement of the Australian Education Foundation. In 1990 two major programs were in operation that were relevant to the teaching of Chinese language: the Australian Second Language Learning Program (ASLLP) (total for all languages $100,000) and the Asian Studies Council (total for all Asian language $132,500). The ASLLP monies have been used to survey and evaluate LOTE programs (this included a balanced offering of Asian and European languages), in-servicing for teachers in methodology and other professional development and for the promotion of LOTE programs in primary schools. The Asian Studies Council (ASC) funds ($32,500 - $100,000 were given directly to the Korean and Thai programs) were used to specifically develop teachers and potential teachers of Asian languages (non-specific). These courses were run in conjunction with a number of tertiary institutions, as well as incorporating overseas intensive training courses.

Specifically in the Chinese language area, ASC funds have been used to employ native speakers to work with college teachers in the production of resources. A primary teacher has also been employed to develop a model primary program with resources. A tutor is employed to work directly with Chinese teachers to improve their communicative skills

The ACT Education Department offers a range of Chinese courses at senior secondary (college) level for beginners, continuing students and advanced

(background / native speakers). Students can also do any of these courses for the International Baccalaureate.

The position paper notes that the Department is moving towards a position whereby a minimum requirement for teachers will be that of a university major in the LOTE. Preferably the teacher will also have had at least one year's experience in a country where the language is spoken, as fluency and knowledge of the culture are both important factors in achieving the goals outlined above.

Chinese is not taught in the Catholic sector or independent primary schools. The ACT government schools have seen modest increase in both its primary and secondary sectors. The independent secondary has seen a 75 percent decrease in enrolments.

School Type			1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
Secondary	Number of schools	4	5	5	6	5	5
	Total enrolments	(300)	246	553	(400)	(600)	(500)
	Total teachers	4	5	5	6	6	6
Primary	Number of schools	2	2	3	3	4	2
	Total enrolments	(50)	(50)	(75)	(85)	(120)	(115)
	No of teachers	1	1	2	2	2	2

Table 41
Student numbers in Government schools

School	1988	1989	1990	1991
Secondary	0	0.9	1.6	2.3
Primary	0	2.3	2.5	2.2

Table 42
Percentage of LOTE students studying Chinese in 1988- 1991

Year	Primary	Compulsory Secondary	Post-compulsory Secondary
1989	64.0	12.2 (33.9)	23.8 (66.1)
1991	58.2	12.8 (30.6)	29.0 (69.4)

Table 43
Percentage of students of Chinese at each level of study
Note: Figures in brackets represent the percentage of total secondary enrolment in Chinese language at that level

School Type		1988	1989	1990	1991
Secondary	Number of schools	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA
	Male enrolment	NDA	129	110	83
	Female enrolments	NDA	115	0	0
	Total enrolments	332	244	110	83
	Total teachers	NDA	NDA	NDA	NDA

Table 44
Student numbers in Independent schools
Note: No data was available for 1992

School	1988	1989	1990	1991
Secondary	7.2	3.6	1.7	1.4

Table 45
Percentage of LOTE students studying Chinese in 1988-1991

Year	Primary	Compulsory Secondary	Post-compulsory Secondary
1988	0	93.4	6.5
1990	0	74.7	25.3

Table 46
Percentage of students at each level

3.2 Special Issues in Teaching Chinese in Primary and Secondary Schools

Many of the major problems that face Chinese language teachers in Australian primary and secondary schools are not specifically to do with the language itself, or indeed the teaching of LOTE. Howard Nicholas et al. (1993) *National Enquiry into the Employment and Supply of Teachers of Languages Other Than English* provides an excellent overview of the current context for the teaching of LOTE as well as a number of problems facing teaching in general. The following section is based on a number of the issues that Nicholas raises, as well as a teacher survey carried out by the authors of this report and interviews with experienced teachers of Chinese in Queensland, Victoria, South Australia and Western Australia. Readers should refer to the Nicholas report for a more detailed analysis of specific issues, such as supply and demand of LOTE teachers, teacher satisfaction and teacher training.

This section focuses on the issues of teacher training (both pre-service and in-service training), materials and resources in the Chinese language classroom and assessment processes.

It is clear that a large proportion of Australia's Chinese language teachers feel that many of the policies and initiatives implemented at national and State levels remain removed from the realities of the classroom. A number of experienced and respected teachers suggested that a higher involvement of teachers in the formulation of these initiatives would make for a more efficient implementation of these initiatives. The aim of this section then is to identify the special issues that affect the delivery of Chinese language specifically in the classroom.

3.2.1 Teacher profiles

Between 60 and 65 percent of all Chinese language teachers in Australian secondary and primary schools are of Chinese descent, and therefore some form of background or native speaker. Unfortunately, a large proportion of these teachers did not respond to the the teacher survey, especially in New South Wales, so it is difficult to provide a quantitative analysis of their educational and language profiles. Of those that did respond, approximately 50 percent had gained undergraduate qualifications in their

homeland and teaching qualifications in Australia. These teachers generally spoke Cantonese as their first language, while the numbers of L1 speakers of Modern Standard Chinese, although increasing rapidly, still represented a minority.

The experience of the teachers varied from State to State. Chinese language teachers in Victoria had on average 10.5 years of teaching experience in any subject and 7.2 years experience specifically teaching Chinese. Queensland teachers had 8.6 years in any subject but only 4.1 years with Chinese. This may reflect a number of issues, not least the number of years Chinese programs have been offered in the various states. It does, however, point to the fact that a considerable number of Chinese teachers have either undergone re-training of some sort to become Chinese language teachers or possibly changed subject areas without any formal training in the new area.

Eighty-five percent of those teachers that responded had received some form of LOTE methodology in their pre-service training. The survey, however, revealed that most teachers were unhappy with this training because it did not deal specifically with Chinese, but rather dealt with generic LOTE methodologies.

Language proficiency remains a problem for non-background teachers. Nearly all those interviewed said that this was the most pressing problem facing such teachers in the classroom.

3.2.2 Professional Development

The National Board of Employment, Education and Training (1990) report, *Teacher Education in Australia*, which is supported by the findings in the Nicholas report, defines the professional development process as consisting of three stages: pre-service preparation; a professional induction component; and on-going inservice education.

Pre-service preparation of language teachers is to serve three functions. Firstly, it hopes to equip potential language teachers with the requisite knowledge and skills to undertake effective, worthwhile language teaching. Secondly, it serves to market language teaching as a professional career path worth pursuing. The third function of pre-service courses is to screen out those potential candidates for language teacher positions who will not be able, in the view of the institution, to provide the appropriate standard of language teaching in schools (Nicholas et al. 1993:158).

The professional induction component is usually concurrent with the first year's teaching. Given the ad hoc delivery of LOTE preparation at teacher training institutions, this phase of professional development currently requires the flexible provision of school knowledge under the guidance of experienced teachers, that will help the new teachers to consolidate their position in the new environment. This is a crucial stage for those teachers who may not be familiar with the various elements of Australian school culture - for example, Chinese language teachers from East and Southeast Asia.

In recent years the third level of professional development, that of inservicing, has become increasingly more important as teaching methodologies rapidly change.

Nicholas et al. (1993:157) state, and this was supported by our teacher survey, that there was a considerable diversity in the preparation and development of LOTE teachers. This diversity reflects two facts, according to Nicholas. Firstly, there is little consensus on exactly what is required of a LOTE teacher. This is an issue that needs considerable attention. The Leal review, Nicholas enquiry and the Victorian Ministry of Education 1990 document, *Criteria for Approving Courses Offered by Recognised Tertiary Institutions for Secondary LOTE Subject Areas* together provide a framework within which HEIs can structure teacher-training courses. The framework provides a comprehensive set of competencies that would be required by language teachers in Australia (see Table 47).

Competence in the LOTE	competence in spoken and written use of the LOTE
Competence in English	competence in spoken and written English
Understanding of the LOTE culture and communities	a good understanding of the significant cultural artefacts of the LOTE an appreciation of LOTE communities within contemporary Australia an appreciation of the relationships between language communities outside and inside Australia
Explicit knowledge of the LOTE	explicit knowledge of the phonology, morphosyntax and discourse patterns of the language
Background linguistic knowledge	an understanding of first and second language acquisition and bilingual research
Pedagogic competence	an ability to foster the development of the language in students an ability to implement contemporary language teaching pedagogy a good understanding of and ability to implement educational principles appropriate to Australian schools and the population diversity in those schools

Table 47
(based on the framework suggested by the Nicholas Enquiry, 1993:179.)

Recommendation 10
The report recommends that the range of competencies that has been outlined in the reports Teacher Education in Australia, *and* The National Enquiry into the Employment and Supply of Teachers of Languages Other Than English *are basic to the field of teaching a LOTE and should be integrated into a set of national criteria with which HEIs can construct teacher training curricula.*

Secondly, and this is especially relevant for recently introduced languages like Chinese, many developments within LOTE teaching have occurred so recently that there has been little time to provide a co-ordinated response to the differences in backgrounds, perceptions and experiences of the different teaching candidates (Nicholas et al, 1993:157). The numbers of ethnic Chinese that are entering the teaching profession have increased rapidly in very recent years. The language profile of these Chinese candidates is complex and their experience with Modern Standard Chinese is often difficult to assess. Responses on how best to train these students have therefore varied considerably, and there is now a strong need for research to provide some insights to this particular problem. *New developments in Chinese Language Training and Teacher Training* (Louie 1992) and Section 3.2.5 of this report argue that special courses should be offered at teacher training institutions to accommodate these students.

Nicholas et al reported that extremely high percentages of LOTE teachers had not received a LOTE methodology as part of their teacher pre-service training. The survey conducted by Nicholas reported that only 68.4 percent of the total number of all LOTE teachers that responded had language teaching method training (1993:163). The survey also found that the exact proportion of teachers that reported no training in language pedagogy varied significantly from State to State. These numbers are tabled below in Table 48.

	ACT	NSW	NT	Qld	SA	Tas	Vic	WA
No of tertiary language method training	17	43	17	202	84	34	263	35
	26.6%	18.8%	42.5%	42.9%	42.0%	33.7%	27.7%	24.1%
Training	47	186	23	269	116	67	687	110
	73.4%	81.2%	57.5%	57.1%	58.0%	66.3%	72.3%	75.9%
Total	64	229	40	471	200	101	950	145

Table 48
Proportion of teachers with language methods training (Nicholas 1993:164)

These data show that between 18.8 and 42.9 percent of LOTE teachers had received no training in language teaching methods. Only New South Wales reported fewer that 20 percent without language training methodology (Nicholas et al. 1993.163). Nicholas also reported similar trends across the Independent and Catholic sectors (1993: 165)

In contrast to the findings of the Nicholas Report, our survey responses indicated that 21 out of 25 teachers (84 percent) in Victoria, 17 out of 20 teachers (85 percent) in Queensland and 11 out of 17 teachers in South Australia, Western Australia, Tasmania, Northern Territory and the Australian Capital Territory (65 percent) had some LOTE methodology in their pre-service training.

Survey responses showed that inservicing for Chinese language teachers was delivered on an ad hoc basis and the amount varied as much within the States as between the States. For example, in Victoria five different bodies delivered in-service programs and teachers stated that they received anything between 0 and 24 hours in 1991. Most teachers cited that they

received between 0 and 10 hours of professional training (much in their own time), and there were mixed feelings as to the effectiveness of this training.

Nicholas et al. also reported that Chinese language teachers repeatedly scored well in self assessments of their language abilities in all the four macro-skills. The report asked the teachers to grade themselves on their ability to easily complete a series of tasks associated with each macro-skills. The report found that 75.7 percent of Chinese teachers easily completed writing tasks, 72.0 percent completed reading tasks easily, 74.3 percent found speaking easy and 66.1 percent could satisfactorily comprehended a set of listening tasks. Chinese language teachers, in all but the set reading tasks, rated themselves in the top half of all language teachers (1993:189-94). This we feel, although a fair indication of the language proficiencies of the language teachers as a whole, does not reveal the language proficiencies of the different groups of teachers within this larger group. The language teachers that consistently rated themselves well, almost without exception were those that taught languages with a large community living in Australia. Arabic, Greek, Italian and Turkish teachers were in the top five for all macro-skills. We suggest that for approximately 40 percent of the Chinese teachers, language proficiency is a major problem, and warrants immediate attention through professional development programs.

There are two aspects of professional development: teaching methodology and language proficiency.

LOTE teaching methodologies continue to evolve, and are therefore an important feature of the professional development of all teachers. However, given the difficulties background-speaking teachers are having in the classroom, it is a crucial that these teachers receive increased professional development. The specific problems associated with background-speaking teachers and students will be examined in more detail later in the report.

In contrast, the language proficiency of non-background speakers is not high enough, and in-servicing is currently doing little to alleviate the problem.

Many of the teachers called for more professional development, both in language and methodology. Most felt that the Chinese language teacher associations were the best qualified bodies to deliver this professional development. These associations were well placed, except for funding, to meet the local needs of the teachers. A number of these associations are interacting well with expertise from the tertiary sector. However, these State bodies also need a national network, to facilitate a more efficient transfer of information between States.

The report then, will recommend the establishment of Chinese Language Teachers Associations in States that do not already have them. Currently only Victoria, Western Australia and South Australia have functioning professional Chinese language teaching bodies. The interaction between these associations and the tertiary sector should be seen as the best mix of expertise and practice so as to provide up-to-date methodology that best suits the local conditions. Funding to these associations should be increased so they can co-ordinate their activities in a more professional manner. In addition stronger efforts need to be made to bring these associations together

within a national framework. This can be achieved by a closer collaboration between the State Chinese language teachers' associations as well as an increased level of communication with the Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers' Associations.

Even though the development of new materials will always be necessary, the focus of government funding should now be shifted to the professional development of teachers. This professional development should engage three current problems. Firstly, the teaching methodologies of teachers need to be upgraded. Many practising teachers do not fully comprehend what is meant by "communicative methodology" and their teaching methodologies remain ill-informed. This is true for teachers trained in Australia as well as those trained overseas. Secondly, the language proficiencies of the non-ethnic Chinese language teachers are, in general, poor and need urgent attention. These teachers, given high levels of fluency, would provide excellent role models for their students. The language proficiencies of the background-speaking teachers also needs attention. Self assessment methods of estimating are often not accurate indicators of fluency in the standard form of the language. It is the experience of the authors that many of these teachers have Cantonese as their L1, and traditionally these speakers have a number of distinct problems with the standard form of Modern Spoken Chinese. There is little doubt that these two groups require different emphases in professional development programs. However, in some areas the skills and proficiencies of one group may be utilised to complement the problems of the other group. In this way background speakers and second-language learners can be seen as valuable and complementary resources for each other in pre-service and in-service professional development. This is discussed further in Section 3.2.6 on background speakers as teachers and students. Initiatives like this are being carried out at the University of Melbourne with considerable success. Thirdly, there is a need to develop the teachers' skills in the application of the available resources. Currently there is a healthy array of good materials available to teachers, but they remain under-utilised because teachers either, do not know of their existence or how best to use them. A case in point, that is discussed elsewhere in this report, is the *Dragon's tongue*. This excellent set of programs cost in the vicinity of $3 million dollars to develop, but teachers did not list it as a commonly used resource in the survey carried out by this project.

There is now a growing consensus among influential sectors of the community for an increased role for LOTE in our educational institutions. There is a need to consolidate this success with the provision of quality professional development for teachers at all three levels outlined above. These programs should be based on the criteria outlined in Table 47.

The CSAA *National Strategy for Chinese Studies* recommended that Chinese language teachers attain a language proficiency of at least 3 on the Australian Second Language Proficiency Rating (ASLPR) scale. It is generally thought that many of the current non-ethnic Chinese teachers would not be at this level. However, as discussed elsewhere in the report, these teachers provide the necessary role models for many Australian second-language learners even though their current proficiencies are not high enough. While this *is* damaging for Chinese language teaching and learning as a whole, such teachers can provide the nucleus of a competent and professional teaching pool for the future. Professional development

programs should, therefore, aim to raise the levels of these teachers to ASLPR level 3 as soon as possible without alienating these experienced teachers.

Recommendation 11
The report recommends that professional development for teachers of Chinese be seen as a priority issue for the success of Chinese language study in Australia.

Recommendation 12
The report recommends that where States do not have Chinese language Teaching professional bodies, States should encourage their establishment and that these bodies, with their practical experience, should be involved in the professional development of teachers.

3.2.3 Materials and Resources

The availability of suitable materials and resources has, in the past, been seen as the greatest problem facing the teaching of Chinese language. This was due in part to the relatively short history of Chinese language teaching in the education systems. Although problems still exist, they are now not as acute as they once were. Teachers have addressed this problem with a great deal of energy and enthusiasm and, independently, have produced a considerable array of practical and communicative materials. Government authorities have also invested in the production of materials. Recent initiatives in this area are outlined in more depth later in this section.

The problem of availability and suitability of materials was not consistent across all teaching levels and was perceived to be more acute in the primary sector. The very recent introduction of Chinese language into this sector and the resultant upsurge in numbers have placed considerable strain on the available materials. Responses to the question of "specific difficulties with resources" continually highlighted the lack of games, posters and other activity-based resources as well as a lack of video material. The National Chinese Curriculum Project (NCCP) and the Queensland Primary LOTE Kit to a large extent will fill this gap, but it must be stressed that they cannot fulfil the total material needs of the classroom teacher and support for materials development must be on-going.

Different problems exist in the secondary sector, where programs have been established for longer. In this sector materials and resources, although still needed as courses evolve and assessment methods change, are no longer a critical problem. Considerable numbers of materials now exist, but the need is again, to create an efficient network so as to facilitate the flow of materials from State to State and sector to sector. More importantly, teachers should be offered professional development in the area of classroom application of these resources so as to gain maximum benefit from their use.

Although the supply of good secondary materials seems adequate for the moment, there may be added pressures in the future. As those students currently studying Chinese in the primary schools move through the education system, they will need language materials appropriate to their

skills. Increased proficiency, after all, is the aim of offering language in the primary schools. There are currently no materials that are suitable for students at Year 12 level who have had six, seven, eight or more years of continuous study. Initiatives need to be put in place *now* to develop such materials, as well as other things like curriculum etc, that will meet these future levels of need.

Even though the problem of availability of materials may no longer be acute, this by no means calls for complacency. Teachers still perceive it as a major problem. Nearly 50 percent of all teachers who responded to the survey questionnaire stated that suitable language materials were either very difficult or impossible to obtain. Forty percent of teachers stated that there was a gap in the supply of cultural resources such as colour posters and wall charts. Teachers usually spent between 15 and 45 minutes in preparation for each hour of language teaching and commented that most of this time was spent in getting materials together.

The high dissatisfaction level with the availability of materials can to some extent be explained by the lack of a central database or efficient network for the flow of resources between the States and sectors. Papers given by teachers and members of tertiary institutions at the Chinese Studies Association of Australia (CSAA) conference in December 1991 revealed quite a healthy array of good resources. It was also evident, from papers given at the conference, that many of the teachers did not know of the existence of this array of new materials - highlighting this lack of an efficient distribution network between teachers. Teachers in different States had often been labouring on similar projects, and were often surprised at the quantity of interstate materials that were available. This national conference highlighted the necessity for a clearinghouse for Chinese materials, so as to make the most of the limited funding available for material development. This is not a new idea and has been called for in most of the major reports in the past (eg. see the recommendations of the National Policy on Languages and the Ingleson and Leal Reports).

Recommendation 13
The report recommends that a national clearinghouse be established to facilitate the efficient flow of information on the availability of materials and resources for the teaching and learning of Chinese language for different education systems across all levels of education.

It is not intended here to describe the situation as ideal and therefore usher in an air of complacency. Rather, even though a sound foundation has been established, continued funding for the development of new materials will be necessary to meet the needs of the rapid expansion in the numbers of students, the changing methodology and the assessment practices that characterise Chinese language teaching.

A number of the most important initiatives and existing resources for Chinese language for the primary and secondary sectors are outlined below.

The *National Chinese Curriculum Project* (NCCP) will fill a much needed gap in the availability of suitable materials and resources for Chinese language learning. The Curriculum will provide three teachers' books, one each for primary, junior middle secondary (stages 1 and 2) and senior

secondary (stages 3 and 4). There are also students' books for primary, stages 1 and 2, and one for stages 3 and 4, as well as a set of general resources. The Curriculum is activity based, providing games, flashcards and ideas for a whole set of student-centred activities. An activity is defined by the project as "a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on meaning rather than form". Form is not totally neglected, however, and a number of exercises that focus on this element of language learning are also included.

The activities and the content are placed within a framework that explicitly defines the stage, goals and linguistic objectives of that particular phase. These objectives are intended as programming tools through which the teacher can organise both their short and long-term programs. The content is developed in stages which relate to the cognitive levels of the particular target students.

The Curriculum, as well as containing learning material and resources, contains general statements on assessment and methodology. The assessment is designed to be an integral part of the teaching-learning process, not something which comes mechanically at the end of a particular course of study. Suggestions for both formative and summative assessments are provided.

The Curriculum will also include audio tapes of authentic teenage speakers presenting stories, poems and rhymes, etc. for the primary years and dialogues and announcements for the older age groups.

It is too early to give detailed comment on the effectiveness of the NCCP, or to its applicability in all States. However its emphasis on flexibility, its excellent methodological basis and the variety of resources and activities that it offers, provides a good foundation for future Chinese language studies in Australia.

The *Hanyu* series is by far the most widely used base text for secondary schools. Over 85 percent of responses to the teacher survey question on which text schools used said that they used this *Hanyu*. It is a staged course in Modern Standard Chinese for the secondary school. The course takes a communicative approach to language learning and is functionally based with an underlying grammatical progression. It fully integrates listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Hanyu 1, 2 and 3 have already been published, but 1 and 2 are currently undergoing revision in response to feedback from practising teachers. The revised *Hanyu* 1 was published late in 1992, as *Hanyu for Beginning Students*. The new *Hanyu* editions will provide content which is manageable by a wider range of students, will introduce characters from the first unit with a staged reduction of pinyin, and will increase the number of exercises, involving both communicative activities and practice exercises in listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. Each stage of *Hanyu* contains a student's book, a practice book, a teachers book and audiocassettes.

Dragon's Tongue is a series of 19 half-hour television programs produced by the Australian Broadcasting Corporation in association with Griffith

University, with support from the Asian Studies Council. There are two series, the Green Series, nine episodes aimed at the less advanced levels, and the Orange Series, ten episodes for more advanced language and culture study. Although the emphasis is on secondary students, it is useful for a wide range of classrooms from upper primary through to university level. It is also becoming a widely used resource within teacher training institutions.

The programs present an excellent mixture of documentary and language material, through a series of mini-dramas that were filmed in China using authentic speakers of all ages. The characters presenting the material in the episodes are natural and well integrated into the dramas. This naturalness and authenticity are important features of the programs. The dramas provide colourful and entertaining situations as well as authentic role models that students can easily relate to, but at the same time in a way that involves the students thereby extending their knowledge of the culture and language. There is more emphasis in the Green Series on interviews and repetition of material, while the Orange series has more documentary material.

The television series which was screened in 1991 and will be re-screened in 1993, is supported by three sets of classroom materials - the complete scripts of the episodes, audiotapes of the dialogues and the *Curriculum Support Materials*. The complete set of support materials will be available to schools and universities by the end of 1992.

Clearly, *Dragon's Tongue* is an important resource for Chinese language teaching and learning and its full potential is yet to be realised in Australian schools.

The University of Canberra in conjunction with the Second Foreign Languages Institute in China has produced a series of student-centred, documentary-style programs entitled *Zouba*, which are set entirely in China and aim to place stress on effective communication, rather than perfect grammar. The series provides motivating and relevant authentic-language study materials which conform to the ALL guidelines. The focus within this framework is on meaning rather than form.

The series is based on the experiences of eight Australians aged from 17 to 19 studying in China under the Young Scholars in China Program. The package looks at life in China through the eyes of the young scholars. Thirteen language modules are presented in the 82-minute video.

The Video contains some excellent and authentic language segments that would be best suited to upper secondary or university students.

At the end of 1991, the Queensland Department of Education embarked on an ambitious project to provide materials to support the upsurge of numbers of students studying LOTE within the primary sector. *The Queensland Primary LOTE Kits* have been or are being produced for six languages for the Years 6, 7 and 8. The Chinese materials for Year 6 were published in 1991, and those for Years 7 and 8 will be published by the end of 1992.

Each stage has 16 units of work, one of which would take approximately two weeks to complete, and is accompanied by an instruction and activity book.

There are also teaching aids such as flash cards, character cards and pictures. The materials for grade six focus on information about personal details, talking about oneself and one's family, one's appearance, likes and dislikes. The Kit's goals coincide with the communication aims of the ALL project: communication, learning how to learn, socio-cultural and linguistic awareness and general knowledge.

The kits are available to schools in other States and although they provide a valuable resource in an area where there is currently a dirge of materials, the price of approximately $500 dollars may prove to be too expensive for a number of schools.

Ni Hao is a basic course for beginning students of Chinese. It introduces Chinese language and culture, and is ideally situated for upper primary and lower secondary levels. It aims to promote cultural understanding, to motivate language learning and to achieve communication in both spoken and written Chinese at a basic level.

The series comprises a textbook, a students' workbook, a teacher's handbook and a teacher's resource kit. The resource kit includes audio and flashcards for teachers. The content is functionally based and communicative, but it also has patterns for exercises to stress grammatical points. The stages in the series are constructive and contain reinforcement exercises throughout the text, so as to enable students to develop in a managed way.

The textbook and student's workbook for *Ni Hao 1* were published in 1991, and it is expected that *Ni Hao 2* will be available from late 1992.

There are also a number of other excellent materials that have been or are about to be produced that can be recommended, but unfortunately cannot be described here in detail. These are listed below.

- Carolyn Blackman, *Essential Characters for students of Chinese Year 7-10*
- Carolyn Blackman, *In China All Mothers Work. Memories of Growing up in China*
- Lorraine Tropp, *Audio Laboratory Lessons for Secondary Chinese Language Students*
- Stephen Lee and Michael Urwin, *Resource Kit for Secondary Teachers of Chinese*
- Stephen Lee, Michael Urwin and Donald Peterson, *Resource Kit for Senior Secondary Teachers of Chinese*
- Paul Carolan, *Chinese Reader and Complementary AV Material*

The South Australian Institute of Languages has produced an excellent handbook entitled *Asian Languages Teaching Handbook* to provide practical, classroom-oriented advice to beginning teachers of three Asian languages - Chinese, Indonesian and Japanese.

The Queensland LOTE Centre was set up with the aim of providing support for LOTE teachers and to assist them in enhancing their language programmes. The focus is on the production of general language and culture materials as well as providing professional development. The following materials have been produced for Chinese language study by the Centre:

- *Let's Sing In Chinese*
- *Let's Recite in Chinese*
- *Discover Chinese* (a student workbook)
- *Fun with Taiji* (video)
- *Quick way to Chinese Painting* (video)
- *Let's Learn Hanyupinyin* (video)
- *Useful Language in the Classroom* (a booklet for teachers)
- *Curriculum Support Materials for Beginners of LOTE --Chinese* (describe in more detail above).

3.2.4 Course Structures and Contact Time

There is an immense variety of structures for Chinese language programs throughout Australian primary and secondary schools. The devolution of the decision-making process to the local level and the apparent lack of national guidelines for language education structures has increased this diversity. The two major variants within the systems are the contact times available for language study and the level at which language study commences.

Victoria, for example, has established a minimum of three hours as a guidelines for the LOTE programs in that State. Queensland and South Australia, on the other hand, have set a minimum of 90 minutes for its programs, while Western Australia has recommended a minimum of 60 minutes. New South Wales, traditionally one of the two largest providers of language courses does not provide any general guidelines for its schools, however, it has recommended a minimum of 2 hours per week for its "Community Language Programs".

In practice, Chinese language programs in Australian primary schools vary from 30 minutes duration to five hours per week. At the upper end there are a number of "immersion style" courses in Victoria and South Australia. Students involved in this type of approach, however, are almost predominantly background or native speakers. The non-background speakers, therefore, are concentrated in the programs with less contact hours per week. As well, the courses vary with respect to the balance of the purely linguistic and the more cultural elements of language education. This of course leads to a variety of exit proficiencies.

The variety of exit proficiencies at the primary level creates problems for the teachers at post-primary levels. One of the most quoted problems by teachers at this level is the variety of language experiences and proficiencies within the one class. This is not simply because of the presence of background or native speakers in the class. L2 learners, as well, have a variety of experience with the language, depending on the number of total hours they have received in the target language - a product of both the length of their study at the primary level and their total number of contact hours in the target language. There is an urgent need for standards to be set for proficiency outcomes at the primary level. Teachers would then have some idea of the standards they and their students are to aim for. There is currently a great deal of confusion over this issue in primary schools.

In addition, if as the attitudinal survey suggests, a positive perception of the student's own language proficiency is an important motivation for students to

continue, ad hoc, piecemeal or taster programs may be detrimental for the student when confronted with the structural problems of transition. There is, therefore, a need for a set of national guidelines to be implemented that set the minimum number of hours of contact time for Chinese language in the primary school sector and from these a set of expected proficiency outcomes can be constructed.

Teachers, in general, believe that the amount of time provided for Chinese language was not enough for L2 students to achieve the levels of proficiency that will help motivate them to to deal with the structural difficulties associated with transition. In addition teachers were asked in this small amount of time to deliver the cultural as well as linguistic elements of language teaching.

3.2.5 Other Issues

The surveys and interviews also noted that major deterrents to a greater numbers of students studying Chinese included timetabling (language seen as a luxury), insufficient class time available for the teaching of language, class size, lack of interest/motivation on behalf of students to study Chinese, students not confident in scoring well at exit levels, too many background speakers in classes, pressure on girls to study the maths and sciences and the fact that writing Chinese was too difficult. These problems reflect the fact that Chinese language remains on the margins of our education system.

Although these problems are complex and not easily solved, it is clear that the first major step is to strongly market Chinese language nationally within the general community. To some extent this process is underway. For example in Queensland, LACU has produced a 20-minute video to market Chinese language to students, parents and school administrations. However, care should be taken about the image of the Chinese-speaking nations that these initiatives present to the public. These should involve the changing of the stereotypical image of China within the community, emphasising the cultural, cognitive and economic benefits in studying the Chinese-speaking countries and their languages.

An increased community awareness of the role of LOTE generally, and Chinese language specifically, has in the provision of a truly comprehensive education system for Australian students would allow schools to incorporate the languages into its core curriculum to a greater extent than is now the case. Although a number of States are moving to include LOTE in their core curricula in the primary and lower secondary sectors, there is a need to dramatically increase the numbers of students studying languages at "the top end" of secondary schooling. If this is not achieved through initiatives currently in place, like the $300 grant to schools for each graduating student, governments should legislate for the mainstreaming of languages into this sector.

3.2.6 Background Speakers as Students and Teachers

In the twentieth century, Australia's population has expanded to incorporate peoples whose linguistic and cultural backgrounds are not Anglo-Saxon. This resource, if harnessed well, could bring tremendous benefits to the future of the nation. For Chinese in particular, the number of ethnic Chinese from East Asia settling in Australia in the last few years, as indicated elsewhere in this report, has been quite spectacular. This migration pattern has coincided with the emergence of the East Asian economies as being vital to the growth and prosperity of Australia. The Australian federal government, with its recent policies of issuing business migration and needed skills visas, clearly recognises that new Australians from the Asian region could facilitate the linkages between Australia and the rest of Asia. Education authorities around the country have also begun to talk about developing the resources of native and background speaker teachers and students (see for example the Queensland Ministerial Statement of 1991 on LOTE)

In practice, however, the response to this challenge of large number of background speakers by administrators and teachers of Chinese has been slow and haphazard. In a "*Report of an Investigation into Disincentives to Language Learning at the Senior Secondary Level*" (July 1990), commissioned by the Asian Studies Council, the investigators Tuffin and Wilson found that, from the available data, the proportions of background to non-background speakers in Chinese for the years 1987, 1988, 1989 and 1990 were higher than 90 percent (it is important to note that no data was available from States where the percentages would have been much lower eg. Queensland). In our own interviews, conducted in 1992, with teachers and educational officers of the five States which have strong Chinese programs, we found the same pattern. Most teachers say that over 80 percent of their students have background knowledge of Chinese. Furthermore, we have also found that the majority, at least 65 percent of the teachers are also background speakers.

Given the overwhelming numbers of students who have background knowledge of Chinese teaching and studying the language in our school system, we were dismayed to find that with the exception of Western Australia and New South Wales, the primary and secondary school curicula across the nation have still to devise courses which are specifically designed for these teachers and students. We believe that the biggest disincentive at present to the development and growth of the teaching and maintenance of Chinese language skills in Australia is the lack of attention to solving this anomaly. At present, we are asking fluent speakers of the language to teach elementary language skills to students who are often also fluent speakers. We are also dismayed that, rather than seeing this ludicrous situation as a major disincentive for teachers and students who should be using their time to learn more advanced linguistic and cultural skills, teachers and administrators have consistently cast background speakers themselves as disincentives for non-background speaker learners. We believe that a completely different perspective needs to be adopted so that the natural resources of the background speakers can be better utilised for the benefit of Australia.

The assumption underlying this description of native and background speakers as disincentives is based on an understanding of the typical LOTE student as mainly non-ethnic Chinese. While this may be the ideal, in practice, the overwhelming majority of teachers and students studying Chinese in most states in Australia have always been background speakers. We believe that while we should work towards getting more non-background speakers to study Chinese, it is time we faced up to the real situation and change our understanding of disincentives. Once background speaking students are recognised as a resource and not as a disincentive, teachers and educational authorities are more likely to want to spend time, effort and money on developing curicula and resource materials for these students.

Once this is done, it is hoped that the perception of the background speakers as disincentives can be gradually removed. In fact, the results of the attitudinal survey carried out as part of this project suggest that the degree to which students themselves perceive background-speakers as a disincentive has been over-rated. The elimination of this perception rather than the elimination of background or visa students from Chinese courses, is absolutely essential for the growth of Chinese studies among the non-ethnic Chinese community. We mention visa students because these students illustrate another aspect of the issue of background speakers which have plagued educationalists involved in Chinese for many years. The recent Australian policy of selling education, especially to East Asian countries has meant that educational institutions have seen huge increases in numbers of Chinese-speaking students. While some commentators (such as Tuffin and Wilson) have argued that they are in Australia to learn Australian ways and not Chinese ways, we believe that a more constructive and innovative approach is necessary. We believe that language and culture cannot be separated. The languages of the PRC, Taiwan, Hong Kong and ROS are to varying degrees, different, both in terms of dialect and cultural content. Students from any one of these regions have in general had little opportunity to learn about languages in the other regions, and many want to learn. Culturally, the Australian way is one where it is important to respect other viewpoints, an educational principle often lacking in the political practices of some of the Chinese-speaking regions. The opportunity for the visa students to learn about their own culture(s) from an Australian vantage point is one which should not be lost. We also believe that Chinese studies, like other disciplines, should benefit from the financial gains brought in by the visa students.

Finally although the focus of this section is on the background speaker teacher and student, a few words need to be said about the non-background speakers since the previous discussion of this issue has been formed in terms of the non-background speaker. We believe that the development of curicula and resources for the background speaker would not only remove the biggest disincentive of having to teach and learn material which is too easy, but the development of two main streams would also remove a major disincentive for the non-background teacher and student, namely the presence of the background speakers. This issue has been discussed at length in various papers and seminars (eg, Louie, 1992). Many teachers express the fear that background speakers, in order to maximise scores in their school results, may choose courses designed for the non-background speaker. Thus, the development of courses designed for the background speaker may not work. We agree with the findings of Tuffin and Wilson (1990) that eligibility

criteria for entry in the different levels must be observed. In order to ensure that the maximum number of students study the Chinese language at all levels, the development, adoption and enforcement of the eligibility criteria is of the utmost importance. At present, only Western Australia seems to have developed a procedure for its Specialist Chinese for Senior Secondary Schools. Other States will need to look carefully at such criteria.

While changes made to school curicula may take time because they involve so many people and institutions, Chinese studies departments within universities, because they are so much smaller and relatively autonomous, can more easily change their programs. In the past, many departments tried, often in vain, to bar background speakers from enroling in their programs. The presence of background speakers in beginners' classes has indeed been a major disincentive to the real beginners. It seems that several universities have begun to conduct courses which separate out background speakers. The University of Queensland has designed courses for the background speakers and the experience shows that for both the background speaker and the regular students, having two separate courses means they learn more effectively. Other universities, such as La Trobe, have also begun to conduct courses which cater for different types of students. While it may involve more work in the beginning, in the end the educational benefits to be gained are tremendous and schools should look towards having separate streams with some urgency.

Recommendation 14

The report recommends that Federal and State funding be made available for the development of specialist Chinese language courses for native and background speakers at all levels.

4.0 Language Attitudes And Students' Continuance And Discontinuance Of Chinese language Studies At Year 11

4.1 The Australian Context

The role of attitudes in influencing the outcome of second language learning has been well debated in current literature which has attempted to demonstrate a causal link between specific attitudinal features and the success or lack of success in language learning.

Though attitudinal roles are also an important issue in Australia, the concern has been mainly to do with the high attrition rate in language learning. Most of the earlier studies conducted in Australia with regard to language attrition fall mainly into the category of census studies and demographic information on when, where, and how many students drop out of studying a language (Fairbairn & Pegalo, 1983; Holt, 1976; Ingram, Leal & Bisset, 1976). More recently, Tuffin & Wilson (1990) have provided a more detailed examination of the plausible disincentives for studying Asian languages. (Their findings will be briefly summarised in the next section.) CoAsIt has also conducted a motivational study of students who studied Italian in the Catholic schooling system. Eltis and Cooney (1983) conducted a survey that incorporated an attitudinal element, however, Chinese languages were not a specific focus. At present, The Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) is conducting a major investigation into the reasons for the under-representation of males in LOTE studies.[1] McMeniman (1988) also reported a study in progress on language attrition in Asian languages.

4.1.1 Brief Summary of Literature on Language Attitudes

Since the study conducted by Gardner and his colleagues (see Gardner and Lambert 1972, Gardner 1978 and Gardner, Lalonde & Macpherson 1985 for historical development of the research) investigating what motivates successful students of a second language, researchers and practitioners have become increasingly aware of the important role of attitudes and motivation in the context of second language learning. They identified several motivational and attitudinal characteristics which appear to be consistently associated with success in foreign language learning.

Of all the plausible attitudes which could have a correlation with language learning, the most extensively scrutinised variable has been the learners' attitude towards speakers of the target language. Most studies have found that a positive attitude towards the target language is related to success in language learning. However, dissenting views have been expressed by Cooper and Fishman (1977) in an Israeli study. Similar findings have also been reported by Genesee and Hamayan (1980) who found no relationship between attitude factors and the proficiency in the French of six-year-old Anglophone Canadians. Several other studies have analysed the different

[1] At the time of writing this report data analysis of the ACER project was not been completed.

types of motivational variables in second language learning. The two central concepts that evolved from these studies are integrative orientation and instrumental orientation. Integrative orientation refers to a class of reasons that suggests an individual is learning a language because of an integrative motive or desire for affiliation with the foreign culture and people; motivational indices such as the desire to learn the language; and general attitudes such as interest in second languages. In contrast, instrumental orientation refers to a situation where a learner is motivated to learn a language for utilitarian purposes, such as furthering a career, improving social status or meeting an educational requirement.

Though Gardner and Lambert (1972) acknowledged that an instrumentally oriented learner can be as intensively motivated as an integratively oriented one, their study with English speaking Canadian students of French lead them to conclude that integratively motivated students will probably have more success in acquiring second language proficiency than instrumentally motivated students. However, more recent studies since then (Lukmani 1972, Izzo 1981 and Dornyei 1988; for a recent review see Au 1988) have either failed to produce a strong integrative factor or found that there were conditions in which instrumental reasons have led to better language learning. Clement and Krudenier (1983) attribute this discrepancy in findings to contextual factors. Based on their study, they reported that a lack of exposure to the target language community could foster an orientation which lacks the affective connotation necessary to inculcate positive feelings about the target language group. In the case of Genesee and Hamayan's (1980) study, the children could be too young to develop a specific attitudinal disposition. Dornyei (1988) also makes the distinction between foreign language learners and second language learners. He suggests that foreign language students generally do not have enough exposure to the target language community to be able to form an attitude about them and proposes that instrumental reasons, and not integrative reasons would be of significance in determining language success in a foreign language context. Though the concept of instrumental and integrative motivation is widely used in research on language attitudes, the usage is not without controversy (see Au, 1988 for a critical evaluation.)

Most of the above studies have examined the correlation between proficiency and language attitudes with some comments on retention rates in language classes. Studies which have specifically set out to study the influence of attitudes on attrition are Bartley (1970), Papalia and Zampogna(1972), Gardner & Smythe (1975) and Gardner, Smythe, Clement, & Gliksman (1976) and a recent study by Ramage (1990). The study conducted by Bartley indicated that attitudinal factors do play a decisive role in language attrition and retention rates. Papalia and Zampogna (1972) reported that the role of teachers and the use of different teaching techniques significantly influenced the continuance rate in second language classrooms. The studies by Gardner and his colleagues are based in Canada. The earlier study by Gardner and Smythe found that motivational and attitudinal differences were more reliable in predicting continuation and discontinuation than were differences in aptitude. In their later study, they found that composite motivational measure - including motivational intensity, desire to learn French, and attitudes toward learning French - correlated the highest with persistence in learning French.

The study by Ramage (1990) on Spanish and French students in San Francisco found that although motivation to continue is to some extent oriented toward using the language as a means to other goals (referred to as extrinsic motives in Ramage's study), the distinguishing factor seems to be an interest in the language itself (intrinsic motives)[2]. Essentially, Ramage's study indicated that though all students, both those who continued and those who discontinued, had similar motivations for language study, the factor that distinguished one group from the other was that intrinsic motivations for language study were attributed more importance by continuing students than by discontinuing students. In the light of her findings she suggested that there is a need to strengthen the more latent intrinsic motives (which could lead to other extrinsic benefits). However, Ramage also argued that intrinsic values should not be fostered at the expense of extrinsic values.

Apart from the above finding, Ramage also found grade level (year) and grade attained in French and Spanish to be useful predictors of the students' persistence in language study. She found that students who started a foreign language early were less likely to discontinue. Ramage argued that students who started earlier could have developed an interest in continuing as a result of the process. An alternative explanation could also be that the more highly motivated students also tended to be the ones that chose to start early. A third explanation offered attributed this trend to the fact that students who started earlier, simply have more time to work with and manage a foreign language together with other requirements. This finding is largely tentative and more longitudinal data collection could be useful in ruling out the variables.

Grade attained in French or Spanish was found to be a strong predictor of continuation as students with higher grades were more likely to continue when compared to students with lower grades. However, Ramage was cautious about the use of grade attained as a reliable indicator of continuance as it interacts with other variables and on its own, it cannot completely account for the decision to continue or discontinue. There is also some evidence which suggests that external evaluation (class assessments, tests, teachers assessment etc.) may not be as successful as internal or self-evaluation in enhancing decisions to continue (Salili, Maehr, Sorenson & Fyans 1981).

In addition to the above reasons, Gardner and Lambert (1972) also identified other factors which may have an indirect influence in shaping attitudes. They are parents, peers, teachers, learning situation, and ethnicity (see Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991:178-79 for a summary of these factors.)

In Australia, Tuffin and Wilson (1990) reported on an investigation into disincentives to language learning at the senior secondary level. The investigation was commissioned by the Asian Studies Council because of concerns that significant numbers of secondary school students were discontinuing their study of Asian languages at the senior secondary level or simply not electing to study Asian languages as a result of certain perceived disadvantages. They identified four main disincentives for language learning (in particular, Asian languages). Though their report is not

[2] Though not explicitly stated by Ramage, the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motives seems similar to the integrative-instrumental dichotomy

specifically concerned with attitudinal features, it is worthwhile summarising the main findings as they are relevant to the present study. The four main disincentives are:

i. Disincentives related to the presence of background speakers - The high proportion of background students in certain LOTE courses was discouraging to other non-background students as the latter typically achieved poorer results and had to cope with unfair competition.
ii. Disincentives related to assessment - This is largely related to point (i) as non-background students believe that their chances of achieving good results and a high tertiary entrance score in the subject are significantly reduced because of other high scoring students.
iii. Disincentives related to the school curriculum - This is a category which encompass time-tabling issues, teacher training and resource problems, the general perception of language learning in the education system.
iv. Disincentives related to post-Year 12 factors - The report noted that one of the disincentive is that students do not see a place for language in the 'world of work'. As a LOTE is not a pre-requisite for tertiary entrance, studying a language is not perceived as valuable especially if it is not seen as a necessary part of the curriculum.

It was difficult to clearly identify Tuffin and Wilson's precise research methodology as not much information is given about the data collection and analysis in their report. Their report appears to be based on a qualitative analysis of a survey of accreditation and certification authorities through the use of questionnaires. Though the researchers mentioned students' responses occasionally, it was never clearly established if they did solicit students' opinions.

This present study will specifically focus on the role of attitudes in Year 11 students who were studying Chinese. While we are interested in the issues raised by Tuffin and Wilson, this study will approach the topic from the perspective of the students.

4.1.2 Attitudinal Survey

The two main aims of this study are to find out the main factors which influence students to continue as well as to discontinue studying Chinese language at Year 11 level. As the survey had to cover a substantial number of students in a short period of time, it was decided that the most efficient instrument to use was a questionnaire. The questionnaire was designed to explore the different factors discussed earlier such as instrumental & integrative motivations, peer & parental pressure and others.

4.2 Method

The methodology of this research is divided into three sub-stages:

Stage 1: Design of questionnaire
Stage 2: Sampling procedure
Stage 3: Administration of questionnaire

4.2.1 Design of Questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed by a sub-committee (Dr Boshra El Guindy, Dr Tony Liddicoat, Professor Jiri Neustupny, Dr Ng Bee Chin, Dr Anne Pauwels, Mr Steven Petrou). A copy of the questionnaire is attached in Appendix D.

The questionnaire was designed to encompass questions relevant to all the nine key languages as well as to address issues relevant to specific languages. To ensure that the responses were in a manageable form, most questions were designed to elicit closed-ended answers. However, where necessary, open-ended responses were encouraged. Briefly, there are four main sections to the questionnaire.

Language profile
This section of the questionnaire examined the profile of students who undertake language courses. The questions were related to the students' gender, country of birth, other subjects studied, socio-economic status and general career aspirations (Q1, Q2, Q3, Q6, and Q7).

Language background
The questions in this section were directed at finding out what language backgrounds the students come from. A self-evaluation of their LOTE skill was also included(Q4, Q5, Q13).

Reasons for discontinuing
This section was directed at students who did a language at Year 10 but discontinued the language at Year 11. The questions were designed to find out the reasons for discontinuing (Q10). The students were supplied with a range of responses ranging from language internal factors such as 'the language is difficult' to language external factors such as 'I don't like the teacher' to 'time-table' clashes.

Reasons for continuing
In this section, questions were directed at finding out the why students continued to do a language up to Year 11 level. The students have to choose from a list of 15 responses. In this section, a Likeart-type scale is used where the respondents have to evaluate the statement on a scale of 1 - 5. Based on other studies on language attitudes and language learning, the reasons provided comprise two major components; instrumental reasons and integrative reasons. For example, responses 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, & 11 of Q11 are integrative reasons for language studies and responses, 4, 5, 9 & 10 of Q11 are examples of instrumental reasons for language studies. Miscellaneous responses to do with external factors such as peer group pressure, parental pressure and the role of teachers were also included.

Relevant questions were repeated for students who did more than one language at Year 10.

4.2.2 Sampling Procedure

The target population of this survey were Year 11 students who did a language at Year 10. Ideally, a random sampling of all Year 11 students in schools with LOTEs would have been the best option. However, limited time and budget constraints precluded this as a possible option.

Instead, it was decided that each language group would provide a list of schools offering that language. This list of schools was not meant to be a comprehensive listing but as far as possible, efforts were made to ensure that the list contained equal proportion of independent, government and private schools from each State. After the list of schools was received, a letter requesting permission to conduct the study was sent to each school on the list. The questionnaires were next sent to schools which agreed to be surveyed. The fact that we could only survey the schools which responded positively means that our sample contains some bias and is an unavoidable limitation of this study. The sample was largely skewed towards independent schools for the Chinese study, not because we particularly wanted to focus on independent schools but because more independent schools than state schools agreed to participate in the study.

For the Chinese language project, we decided to focus our study on four states: Queensland, New South Wales, Victoria and Western Australia. South Australia, the Northern Territory and Tasmania were not included in the study mainly because there were no consistent contact persons in those states, an essential element to ensure that the survey could be carried out expediently within the time constraints These elements of bias should be remedied in future studies.

4.2.3 Administration of Questionnaire

The questionnaires were distributed to all year 11 students in the 69 schools which gave permission for the study to be carried out. The sample relevant to this study was obtained from 32 of the 69 schools surveyed. As we were only interested in students who did Chinese at Year 10, the questionnaires filled in by students who did not fulfil this criterion were not used.

The questionnaires were then centrally returned to NLLIA. A statistical consultant, Dr. Robert Powell, and his research assistant Michael Day, assisted in the coding and processing of the data.

4.3 Results and Discussion

The results for particular questions were cross-tabulated with four main variables. These variables were: a) states (Victoria, New South Wales, Queensland and Western Australia); b) types of schools (independent, Catholic and state); c) gender; and d) language background (background speakers and non-background speakers). As not all aspects of these comparisons are of significant interest, only relevant aspects of the cross-tabulations will be reported in this study

The results are divided into five sections:

1. Information about sample.
2. Profile of students.
3. Language background.
4. Reasons for discontinuing.
5. Reasons for continuing.

4.3.1 Information About Sample

In total, 359 students completed the questionnaire for the Chinese language project. The sample contains both LOTE 1 (302) and LOTE 2 (56) students. In all cases, the trends observed in LOTE 1 were reflected in LOTE 2. Therefore, both LOTE 1 and LOTE 2 results have been combined for the purposes of these analyses. Table 49 contains a tabulation of the sample by the four different States. 35 percent of the sample were from Victoria, 29 percent from Queensland, 23 percent from N.S.W. and 13 percent from W.A.

State	No. of students
Victoria	127 (35%)
Western Australia	46 (13%)
New South Wales	81 (23%)
Queensland	105 (29%)
Total	359 (100%)

Table 49
Number of students studying Chinese by States

As evident from Table 50, a substantial portion (60 percent) of the sample was from independent schools. The reason for the large number of independent school students in this sample is that independent schools have traditionally offered Chinese as a subject, and hence have larger population of students doing Chinese at senior levels. In contrast, Chinese has not been a preferred language in the Catholic system and in a lot of the State schools, where the introduction of Chinese is a fairly recent event.

Type of School	No. of students
Independent	215 (60%)
Catholic	3 (1%)
State	141 (39%)
Total	359 (100%)

Table 50
Number of students by type of schools

Out of this sample, a total of 141 (39 percent) students discontinued Chinese after Year 10 while 166 (46 percent) continued to study Chinese. Due to improper questionnaire administration, fifty students (19 percent) did not fill in the questionnaire correctly. Students who discontinued Chinese were supposed to answer Q.10 and only students who continued were supposed to answer Q.11. Fifty students filled in both sections which complicated the analysis and left their status as 'uncertain'. This information is further summarised in Table 51.

Status	Male	Female	Total
Discontinued	103	38	141(39%)
Continued	97	69	166 (47%)
Uncertain	27	23	50 (14%)
Total	227	130	357[3] (100%)

Table 51
Gender and Continue/Discontinue status

Of the students who responded correctly, approximately half of the students in this sample discontinued Chinese after Year 10. Of the students discontinuing 73 were males while only 27 percent were females.

4.3.2 Profile of Students

Gender distribution:
At year 10 level 227 (63 percent) of the students studying Chinese were males while 130 (36 percent) were females. The large proportion of males to females is surprising for language subjects. However, the larger representation of males seems to be the trend in the study of Chinese (see Section 3.1).

Place of birth:
Of the 359 students, 150 (42 percent) were born overseas. Table 52 provides some of the more common places of origin. The rest of the sample (58 percent) were born in Australia.

Country	Number
Vietnam	31
Taiwan	27
Malaysia	18
Hong Kong	14
Singapore	8
Other*	52
Total	150

Table 52
Number of students born overseas
**from 19 other countries, eg. Israel, Iran, Fiji, Laos, England etc*

Parents' occupation:

	Father	Mother
Primary	5.3%	5.8%
Post Primary	18.1%	20.6%
Year 12	18.9%	25.3%
Undergraduate degree	19.5%	17.3%
Postgraduate degree	28.1%	19.5%
Other	3.3%	3.9%

Table 53
Educational background of parents

Table 53 indicates that a fair proportion of the students have parents who are highly educated. Close to 50 percent of the sample have at least one parent who has a tertiary degree. This is higher than average and could be due to the over-representation of independent schools in this sample. It is not

[3] There are two missing subjects in this tabulation which cannot be accounted for.

easy to draw absolute conclusions about SES but from the above statistics we can infer that this sample is perhaps more representative of a middle to upper middle class sector of Australia.

Subjects studied at school concurrently

As the number of subjects listed is extensive (close to 100 different subjects), only those subjects which were listed by more than 20 percent of the sample are reported here. Table 54 shows the most commonly studied subjects by students of this sample.

Subjects	Number
Maths	227 (63%)
Chemistry	205 (57%)
Physics	190 (52%)
Economics	110 (30%)
Accounting	76 (21%)

Table 54
Most common subjects taken by students of Chinese

It is evident from the Table 54 that many of the students who form this sample come from either a pure science background or a commerce or economics background. An analysis of the data according to gender variable shows that the predominance of males in this sample has pushed up the figures for physics, maths and economics. Nevertheless, females were well represented in subjects such as chemistry, biology and accounting.

Subjects	Males	Females
Chemistry	59.3	54.3
Physics	61.9	38.0
Accounting	19.9	24
Maths	58.4	39.5
Maths 2	17.3	3.1
Economics	38.1	18.6
Biology	21.2	21.2

Table 55
Gender differences in subject choice

If this dominance of non-arts subjects is more generally representative of the population of students studying Chinese, these statistics have major implications for the structuring of Chinese courses and degrees in Chinese at the tertiary level. Out of this sample, 84.6 percent indicated an intention to attain tertiary education and 14 percent indicated a desire to continue studying Chinese at a tertiary level. Presumably, the majority of these students would continue to pursue a science or commerce based degree at the tertiary level. They may not wish to continue to study Chinese at a more advanced level, but if they wanted to, at the moment, there are only limited structures within universities (see Section 5.1) that allow for joint science or commerce and Chinese studies degrees. Currently, the main pool of language students in university language departments are from the Arts Faculties and they tend to be females. If the current trend of male dominance in Chinese language study continues, there may be a need to survey the needs of these students for programs of study at the tertiary level. The current situation appears to be problematic as it appears that at the end of high school, most students studying Chinese have no readily available tertiary program available which would allow them to continue their language studies.

Intended tertiary study

As mentioned in the previous section, 84.6 percent of the sample intended to study at a tertiary level. This 84 percent is spread quite evenly, by gender, across the different states, types of schools and language background with two exceptions. Not surprisingly, the number of students who indicate a desire to pursue tertiary study is 11 percent higher in the Independent schools compared to the State schools (89 percent and 78 percent). Only 76 percent of the students in New South Wales indicated an intention to pursue a tertiary career compared to 93.5 percent in WA, 86 percent in Victoria and 86 percent in Queensland. However, the lower percentage in NSW is compensated for by a higher response for those intending to study at a TAFE (11 percent) which, when combined, makes the NSW figures comparable to those in other states.

Intended tertiary study of Chinese

Though 84 percent intended to study at a tertiary level, only 19 percent (22 percent including TAFE) indicated that they would continue doing Chinese at the tertiary level. Hence, less than a fifth of the current sample would choose to do Chinese after high school.

Table 56 shows that the situation is not too promising for Victoria, where only 19 percent indicated an interest to continue doing Chinese. This is far below the average for other States. Though New South Wales had a lower percentage of students expecting to study at the tertiary level, this was again compensated by the higher response for the TAFE sector. The Victorian results in the present data are not easily explained. However, they could be an artefact of this particular sample as in many other respects Victoria's language studies are more robust in comparison to other states.

Level	Vic	WA	NSW	Qld
Tertiary	19%	35.3%	22.2%	36.7%
TAFE	1.7%	5.9%	13.9%	0

Table 56
Percentage of students intending tertiary study of Chinese

Other interesting findings include the fact that more females (31 percent) than males (24 percent) and more non-background speakers (35 percent) than background speakers (20 percent) reported an intention to continue with Chinese.

4.3.3 Language Background

This section is of interest to Chinese language study because of the different Chinese languages. Table 57 illustrates the number of students in this sample who come from a background of Mandarin Chinese and other related Chinese languages. Though this group has often been labelled as native speakers and sometimes as background speakers, they will be referred to as background speakers in this study. Despite being not entirely satisfactory, 'background speakers' is a more accurate description as the term 'native speakers' implies that they speak the target language as a mother-tongue, which is untrue for a majority of the students concerned. The term background speakers, thus, encompasses the group of Mandarin Chinese speakers as well as speakers of other Chinese languages. As most educators and researchers

know, oral competence in a Chinese language such as Hokkien does not necessarily imply competence in oral or written literacy skills in Mandarin Chinese.

Language spoken at home	Number
Mandarin Chinese	50 (15.2%)
Cantonese	53 (16.1%)
Other Chinese languages	20 (5.6%)
Total	123 (34.3%)

Table 57
Number of background speakers

4.4 Reasons for Discontinuing Chinese

As reported in Table 51, approximately half of the students doing Chinese discontinued after Year 10. The high attrition rate among students studying Chinese has been a major concern for both educators and researchers. This concern resulted in the commissioning of Tuffin and Wilson to investigate the disincentives for the study of languages by the Asian Study Council in 1989. This high attrition rate has often been attributed to the inherent difficulty of the language. Other reasons such as the presence of native speakers were reported by Tuffin and Wilson (1990). The following sections explore the issues in greater detail.

4.4.1 The Issue of Background Speakers

In their report Tuffin and Wilson (1990) argued strongly that the presence of background speakers in secondary education is a prime source of disincentive for non-background students, since background students are often more proficient than non-background students in Chinese. They also strongly urged that this problem be resolved since according to their report, it is a hindrance to the development of language studies in Australia and in particular, to the study of Asian languages. The following quote sums up the position of background speakers in Tuffin and Wilson's report.

> In fact, in the particular case of Asian languages, it is obvious that the discouraging effect that the presence of these students is having on Australian students is to the detriment of a nation in desperate need of Asian language teachers and of other professionals with Asian language skills. (1990:28)

Indeed, Tuffin and Wilson's concerns have also been shared by other educators in Chinese studies as it is a topic that has surfaced repeatedly at conferences. The general consensus is that background students are perceived as a disincentive to study Chinese by other non-background students. However, most of the evidence, including that presented in Tuffin and Wilson's report, is based on qualitative reports from the non-student sector. This study will attempt to evaluate the observations drawn by Tuffin and Wilson and others but from the students' perspective. Table 58 shows a listing of the students responses to the statements relating to their reasons for discontinuing the study of Chinese.

Reasons for discontinuing	Percentage response
I do not like languages	8.7%
There were too many native speakers	7.8%
The subject was too difficult	18.2%
My friends did not take this subject	0.5%
I did not like the teacher	11.7%
Other reasons (open-ended response)	22.9%
The language was not available	2%
I considered other subjects more important	20.9%
There were time-table clashes	5.3%

Table 58
Reasons for discontinuing Chinese

As can be seen from Table 58, there seem to be no single dominant factor which would explain why students discontinue the study of Chinese, apart from the fact that 21 percent discontinued mainly because of competing subject choice. The inherent difficulty of the language also drew a comparatively high response (18 percent). Citing difficulty of subjects as a reason for discontinuing is consistent with several other studies which found that students showed less interest in continuing the study of a difficult subject, than an easy one. This is linked with students' perception that subsequent courses will be more difficult (McMeniman, 1988). Other situational variables like antipathy towards the teachers (11.7 percent) and the presence of native speakers (7.8 percent) also had an influence on the students' decision to discontinue.

In the context of Tuffin and Wilson's report, the fact that, in the present study, only 28 cases (7.8 percent) nominated *'I discontinued because there are too many native speakers in class'* as a reason came as a surprise. A further analysis was done to see if this 7.8 percent were from schools with high concentrations of background speakers. This was done through tracing the schools attended by background speakers. Table 59 illustrates the response patterns of students from schools with background speakers for this specific statement.

As evident from Table 59, the relationship between the presence of native speakers and the discontinuation of studying Chinese cannot be convincingly established. For example, the presence of 17 background speakers in a school with 20 others doing Chinese in Case 1 only elicited 1 response whereas in Case 7, the presence of 4 background speakers in a school with 50 others doing Chinese elicited 14 responses. In Case 10, the presence of 10 background speakers in a school with 23 others did not constitute a problem at all. The high percentage of responses in Case 7 is intriguing. As Baldauf and Lawrence (1990) point out, school and/or teacher are important variables in student attrition rates.

It seems clear from this data that the issue of background speakers is not as clear-cut as we have assumed it to be. That is, non-background students do not necessarily perceive background students as a threat. In fact, a further re-analysis of the sample of 28 who nominated the presence of background speakers as reason for discontinuing revealed that *all* 28 students also nominated other reasons. Furthermore, the fact that the choice of *'I discontinued because there are too many native speakers"* is a possible option in this study should also be taken into consideration.

List of schools	Background students	Non-Background students	Total students in school	Number of responses
1.WA (State)	17	20	37	1
2.Vic (Indept)	5	40	45	1
3.Vic (Indept)	8	4	12	3
4.Vic (Indept)	4	17	21	3
5.Vic (State)	5	0	5	1
6.Qld (Indept)	2	17	19	1
7.Qld (Indept)	4	50	54	14
8.NSW (State)	23	5	28	1
9.NSW (Catholic)	2	27	29	3
10.Vic (Indept)	10	23	33	0
11.Vic (State)	9	2	11	0
12.Qld (State)	14	1	15	0
Column Total	103	206	309	28

Table 59

Number of 'I discontinued because there are too many native speakers in class' responses in schools with background students.

The data from this study suggests that it may be inappropriate to attribute high attrition rates to the presence of background speakers in the classrooms as has been done in the past. Obviously, the fact that this particular response was selected at all is a concern and 7.8 percent cannot be lightly dismissed. However, in examining the reasons why students discontinue Chinese, one has to consider the highly complex and sensitive interactions between methodological constructs, teacher/class management issues and race relationships. For example, in the survey of teachers conducted for this report, some teachers expressed their insecurities about having to teach background students who were more proficient in the language than themselves. In this situation, background speakers were often perceived as threats. This scenario obviously does not provide a healthy backdrop to effective teaching but to put the blame entirely on background students is both nonconstructive and unfair. There are no simple answers and drawing conclusions from *prima facie* observations will lead to other complications.

The problems posed by background speakers were discussed in Section 3.2.6. However, at this point it is perhaps useful to refer to The Ingleson Report which urged that background speakers should be seen as a positive resource rather than a negative one. This argument has certainly found support in North America, where the perception of background speakers which dominates tends to be different from that prevalent in Australia. Background speakers (or heritage speakers as they are referred to in North America) have been found to be an asset as they provide a source of enriched input for the other students. Ramage (1990) found that continuing foreign language students reported more exposure to native speakers of the target language than did discontinuing students. Closer to home, in a study examining sociolinguistic factors in some Victorian Primary LOTE programs, Clyne, Jenkins, Chen, Rogerson and Tsokalidou (1992) have found that students in Chinese programs with high concentration of background speakers scored higher in listening comprehension. However, the same effect was not observed for production skills. In the light of these findings, it is perhaps useful for teachers to be trained to recognise and use background speakers as a positive source of target language input in and out of the classroom.

Though this sample is relatively small and may not be representative of the general population, the evidence presented here suggests that more in-depth studies need to be conducted before any clear conclusions can be reached. It may be particularly useful to focus more closely on situational variables within classrooms which interact with the learners to influence, either directly or indirectly, continuing motivation in the study of Chinese. As pointed out by McMeniman (1988) the interaction between the students and the curriculum planned by the teacher results in several perceptions or interpretations by the students of the learning environment which they are experiencing.

4.4.2 Other Reasons for Discontinuing

The variable, *I don't like the teacher* drew a large response from students in Victoria and Queensland. Thirty-five percent of Victorian students and 38 percent of Queensland students nominated it as a reason compared to 14 percent for WA and 15 percent for NSW. Given the small sample size and without the benefit of more in-depth data, no conclusions can yet be drawn from this observation.

There were also some gender differences motivating discontinuance. As noted in Table 51, males are twice as likely to discontinue as females. Males also are more likely than females to discontinue language studies because they do not like languages (males' responses, 27.8 percent, females' responses, 10.3 percent). As well, compared to females (38 percent), more males (52 percent) chose the difficulty of the subject as a reason for discontinuance.

4.5. Reasons for Continuing

For this question, students were required to rate a series of 15 statements on a scale of 1 to 5 ranging from not important to very important. A rating of 5 indicated that the statement was a very important factor in a student's decision to continuing Chinese study, while a rating of 1 indicated it was not important. An average rating for each statement was calculated. Table 60 presents both the LOTE 1 and LOTE 2[4] students' response patterns to question 11.

The figures in Table 60 indicate that various reasons suggested did play differing roles in students' decision to continue. Reasons such as peer pressure and the role of teacher (No. 8, 13, & 14) do not have a positive influence on students' desire to continue, while parental pressure (No. 12) did.

[4] Though the responses for LOTE 1 and LOTE 2 were similar, LOTE 2 responses were analysed separately for the purpose of comparison.

Reasons for continuing	LOTE 1	LOTE 2
1. Ethnic origin and/or religion	2.30	2 09
2. Contact with the ethnic community in Australia which speaks the language	2.30	2.68
3. Other contact with the country where the language is spoken (past travels, friends, parents, work, etc.)	2.70	2.54
4. I thought this would be an easy subject for me	2.54	2.44
5. I had good marks in the past.	3.50	3.14
6. I like studying languages.	3.30	3.48
7. I like studying about the culture and society of the country where the language is spoken	3.19	3.42
8. I particularly like the teacher	2.18	2.38
9. I do not have definite plans for the future but I feel the language would enhance my future career prospects.	3.74	3.7
10. I have definite plans to work in an area of employment where the language is used.	2.77	2.51
11. I want to travel or live in the country.	2.92	3.23
12. I have been advised to continue by my family	2.73	2.96
13. I have been advised to continue by my teachers.	2.35	2.45
14. One or more of my friends are taking the subject.	2.08	2.15
15. Although I had no strong desire to continue, other subjects were even less attractive.	2.05	2.13

Table 60
Response to reasons for continuing Chinese study

4.5.1 Background Speakers

The background speakers consistently attributed higher importance (73 percent assigned a value of 4 or higher) to statement 2 and statement 3. This is not surprising as both statements are related to identifying with the Chinese culture. Presumably, the background speakers see Chinese as a tool for them to maintain their cultural identity. It is also interesting to note that substantially more background speakers as compared to non-background speakers rated statement 12 (advised by their family) highly. Again, one could infer that their maintenance of the language/culture is highly valued by their parents. Though statement 7 was also rated moderately high by the background speakers, it was not rated as highly as statements 2 and 3. This reinforces the observation that for the background speakers Chinese language is a vehicle for preserving cultural links and whilst understanding the culture is also important and desirable it is not the primary motivation. Apart from these integrative factors, there are also some suggestions that background speakers were studying Chinese for instrumental ends as they also tended to rate statements 4 and 5 higher than the rest of the sample. However, though both non-background students rated the statement *'I do not have definite plans for the future but I feel the language would enhance my future career prospects'* highly, the rating for background students was lower when compared to non-background students (63 percent compared to 81 percent gave a rating of 4 or higher).

4.5.2 Gender Specific Differences

Females, more than males, are more likely to study a language for intrinsic reasons (e.g. in statement 6, Table 60 Thirty-five percent of females rated *I like studying languages* as 'very important' while only 16 percent of the males gave that item the same rating). This corresponds with the earlier observation that males are more likely to discontinue language studies because they do not like languages. Interestingly, while there were no gender-specific patterns with regard to the empathy with the teacher in decisions to discontinue, more females (74 percent rated statement 8 higher than males (40%). Thus, females are more likely to continue if they like the teachers. Another interesting gender-specific response pattern is reflected in the different ratings in the instrumental motivation component in the continuing student sample. While there were no gender differences in the response pattern for integrative motivation, the mean response for instrumental differences was considerably higher for females (11.3)[5] than for the males (7.8).

4.5.3 Instrumental and Integrative Distinction

As shown in Table 61, integrative statements for learning Chinese elicited mid to high ratings by the students. Of the integrative reasons, statement 6 and statement 7 attracted the highest rating. This suggests that the intrinsic enjoyment derived from the task of language learning (a trait which has been positively correlated with language aptitude) and a desire to develop a better understanding of the target language culture are both strong factors which encourage further study in Chinese. This may have implications for Chinese teaching pedagogy. As pointed out by Tuffin and Wilson, the lack of properly trained teachers and dull teaching materials are noted disincentives to language learning. It goes without saying that the improvement of teacher training and resource materials will only serve to enhance the level of teaching and learning that goes on in the classroom.

A rough comparison of Table 61 and Table 62 suggests that instrumental reasons seem to feature more strongly than integrative reasons in students' decision to continue (though this is not statistically significant). In particular, statement 9, *I do not have definite plans for the future but I feel the language would enhance my future career prospects* drew the highest response of 3.74. An overwhelming 71 percent of the students gave it a score of 4 and above. In contrast, the response to a related point in statement 10, *I have definite plans to work in an area of employment where the language is used*, drew only a response of 2.77. This suggests that the students were motivated to continue in doing Chinese because they believed that is will be relevant to their career even though they do not have clear ideas as to how and where their skills could be deployed. Though we expect instrumental reasons to feature strongly in all language students because of the current climate of economic rationalism in educational sectors, the response pattern

[5] These means were derived by computing the ratings for instrumental statements (4, 5, 9 & 10) (see table 62) only. As the questionnaire contained four instrumental statements but five integrative ones, the scores for the instrumental responses were multiplied by 1.25. For both instrumental and integrative reasons, the highest score for each student is 25 (ie. if they gave each reason a rate of 5 on the scale).

in Chinese for this particular component seems higher than other languages in this study (eg. German).

Integrative reasons for continuing	LOTE 1	LOTE 2
2. Contact with the ethnic community in Australia which speaks the language	2.3	2.68
3. Other contact with the country where the language is spoken (past travels, friends parents work, etc.)	2.7	2.54
6. I like studying languages.	3.3	3.48
7. I like studying about the culture and society of the country where the language is spoken	3.19	3.42
11. I want to travel or live in the country.	2.92	3.23

Table 61
Integrative reasons for continuing

Instrumental reasons for continuing	LOTE 1	LOTE 2
4. I thought this would be an easy subject for me	2.54	2.44
5. I had good marks in the past.	3.5	3.14
9. I do not have definite plans for the future but I feel the language would enhance my future career prospects.	3.74	3.7
10. I have definite plans to work in an area of employment where the language is used.	2.77	2.51

Table 62
Instrumental reasons for continuing

A Pearson Product-moment correlational analysis between instrumental response patterns and integrative response patterns indicated a significant correlation (0.4380, $p<0.01$). Hence, subjects who rated instrumental reasons highly also tended to rate integrative reasons highly.

The higher rating of instrumental reasoning for continuing Chinese as compared to other languages could be related to the stepping up of the 'Asia literacy' movement in recent years. As an isolated statistic, this fact alone is not exceptionally interesting. However, if one considers the fact that a high proportion of students in this sample are science and commerce oriented students, this finding takes on a different significance. This could indicate a changing view of language studies, particularly the view that the study of Chinese is a Humanities discipline which is not relevant to other fields.
Though it has been reported by Salili, Maehr, Sorensen & Fyans (1981) that continuing motivation is enhanced by self-evaluation rather than external evaluation. In this study, external evaluation *Having good marks in the past* was found to be a reasonably strong instrumental motivation to encourage students to continue. This is consistent with Gardner's (1978) findings which indicate that an adequate level of achievement by a student is a prerequisite for continued interest or persistence in second language study. Such achievement oriented factors are also reported in other studies (Maehr and Stallings, 1972, Lukmani, 1972, Baldauf and Lawrence 1990).

4.5.4 Self-Evaluation Data

In Question 13 of the questionnaire, students were asked to self-rate their language ability as 'poor', 'good', 'very good' or 'fluent' for each of the four language components; speaking, listening, writing and reading. Each rating was numerically scored from 1 to 4, with the value '1' assigned to a rating of 'poor' and the value '4' assigned to a rating of 'very good'. The highest possible rating is 16 and the lowest is 4. For the purpose of the present

analysis, any score of below 10 is recoded as low self-evaluation and any score of 10 and above is recoded as high self-evaluation. This self-evaluation data is then related to those in the sample who continued and those in the sample who discontinued.

	high ability	low ability
continuing students	50 %	49%
discontinuing students	19%	71%

Table 63
Self-Ratings of overall ability for continuing and discontinuing students

Thus, while higher or lower self-evaluation do not feature in any systematic way in students who continued, the high percentage of lower self-evaluation in the discontinuing sample suggests that lower self-evaluation may lead to students decision to discontinue. Conversely, students with higher self-evaluation were less likely to discontinue. Also worth noting is the fact that the total score response for instrumental motivation statements is higher for students who evaluated themselves as having high ability (13.9) compared to students who evaluated themselves having low ability (7.6). The Pearson correlation indicated that high self-rating was significantly (0.3265, $p<0.05$) correlated with instrumental motivation. Integrative motivations for both groups of students were similar (14.8 and 14.9).

In summary, the self-evaluation data suggests that discontinuing students tended to have more negative self-evaluation and students with positive self-evaluation tended to have higher rating for instrumental motivations.

4.6 Conclusion and Implications

The present study was conducted to determine the reasons which motivated students to continue or discontinue the study of Chinese at Year 11. With regard to reasons for discontinuing, the data shows that students discontinued for a whole variety of reasons, the main one being competing subject choices. There is no single determining factor which directly influenced students decision to drop-out. In particular, the findings provide weak support for the often reported observations that the presence of background speakers is perceived as a disincentive by non-background students. The fact that background speakers have generated this much discussion over the years clearly indicates that they do provide a challenge for the administrators and teachers. At the tertiary level, this situation has begun to be recognised and accommodated by several institutions such as La Trobe University, Monash University and the University of Queensland. However, over the years, the terms 'disincentives' and 'background speakers' have become an unfortunate collocation. The results in this study question the accuracy of this collocution. They also highlight the need to reframe the situation and by doing so, we may perhaps, be more successful in finding the solutions.

The results from self-evaluation show that students who evaluated their Chinese language skills more highly were less likely to discontinue. As the present study did not directly examine students' Chinese language skills, there is no way of knowing if self-evaluation reflects actual competence. Nonetheless, developing a positive self-image may be an important factor

for students. The question as to how that can be done is however not easily answered. The answer may well be the obvious, i.e., the teacher-task-student triangle. In the study by Papalia and Zampogna (1972), they compared teacher behaviour and foreign language attrition. An experimental group was taught by a teacher trained in interactional analysis and process oriented teaching style. The findings showed a startling 63 percent continuance rate for the experimental group and 35 percent for the control group. Hence, the role of the teacher is not to be underestimated. The response patterns in this sample indicate that empathy with teachers does have a positive influence in inducing students to continue, particularly the female students. However, this perspective runs the danger of totally shifting the responsibility back into the classroom which is just as unsatisfactory. The situation is best seen as an interaction of sociolinguistic, cognitive and pedagogical variables and until each variable is clearly identified, it may be still premature to draw conclusions about the precise role of each variable.

The results indicate that both instrumental and integrative motivation are strong factors for students who decided to continue. The fact that integrative motivation is no higher than instrumental motivation could be due to two reasons. Firstly, Chinese is a foreign language in Australia and as pointed out by others (e.g. Clement and Krudenier 1983, Dornyei 1988), integrative motivation may not feature as highly for languages which are learned in a foreign language context compared to languages which are learned in a second language context. However, the higher mean score for integrative motivation in other languages with similar foreign language status such as German casts some doubt on this explanation. The second explanation could be the fact that while, generally, language learning is still not valued by the administrators, students who chose to continue language studies, in particular Chinese, are showing an increased awareness of the potential career gains of doing Chinese. Though this can be interpreted as a positive sign, the high attrition rate in Chinese may well bear the implication that this particular message is not getting through to all students.

The data also indicates that students with higher self-evaluation of their ability were also more likely to have higher instrumental motivation and female students were more likely to have higher instrumental motivation. While students largely realised that Chinese will enhance their career, most of them have no clear ideas as to how Chinese language skills can be deployed. This is consistent with Tuffin and Wilson's report that there is a lack of a larger context for the role of language post HSC. While this may be true for all students in general, it seems that even for the continuing students, there is a lack of awareness of specific usefulness of language skills. Though it is not unusual for Year 11 students to be unsure about career paths, it is perhaps useful for them to have more concrete ideas about the different careers in which a knowledge of Chinese is an asset.

Other administrative concerns are issues such as the need to devise facilities within universities' structures which could accommodate the increasing sample of male students and science-oriented students. This issue has been discussed in detail in Tuffin and Wilson (1990). The demographic trends found in this study provide further support for their observations and recommendations with regard to this factor. A more practical and urgent concern entails negotiating for joint degrees. As a start, it may be worthwhile

to do a survey in science and economics/commerce faculties to test the feasibility of offering language options in those courses. This would be an immeasurable resource as it cuts out second language attrition both at the individual and social level.

As the present data is from a selective sample, there is a need for a more broadly based study. At the moment, a complete and accurate profile of the continuing and discontinuing sample cannot be derived from the present data as both groups were directed to different questions which limited the range of analysis. This weakness in the questionnaire could be improved upon for a subsequent study. Apart from being more representative, a larger sample would enable the researcher to examine problems in more detail. At this stage, it is necessary for us to know more about interactional dynamics in Chinese classrooms in Australia. Obviously, this is not a small task, but to gain a more complete understanding of the role of attitudes and such situational variables, it cannot be ignored.

5.0 Tertiary Institutions

5.1 Trends in Enrolments

Since 1987 there has been a significant increase in the number of tertiary institutions offering Chinese. Ingleson (1989:123) noted that, in 1988, nine universities (The University of Queensland, Griffith University, James Cook University, University of Sydney, Macquarie University, University of Melbourne, Monash University, University of Adelaide, Murdoch University) and four colleges for further education, Canberra College of Advanced Education, Victoria College, Western Australian College of Advanced Education and the Darling Downs College of Advanced Education offered Chinese. Leal, in his *Widening our Horizons* (1991:159) identified six more institutions which had commenced Chinese language courses in 1990; LaTrobe University, The Universities of Newcastle, New South Wales and New England, University College of Southern Queensland and the Victoria University of Technology. By 1992 this had increased in 1992, to 23 Higher Education Institutes (HEIs). The distribution in the various States and the numbers of students and teaching staff in 1992 at each HEI is as follows:

State	Institution	No of Students	Teaching Staff Full time	Teaching Staff Part time	Teaching Staff E/T
S A	University of Adelaide	130	7	0	
	Flinders University	17	0	0	
	University of South Australia	166	3	0	
Vic	University of Melbourne	260	4	0	
	La Trobe University	110	2	0	3
	Deakin University	160	4	0	
	Monash University	150	5	1	
	Victoria College				
	Ballarat University College	28	1	0	
	Victoria University of Technology	32	1	0	
Qld	The University of Queensland	100	5	2	
	Griffith University	112	6	0	
	University of Southern Queensland	58	1	0	2
	James Cook University	15	0	3	
NSW	University of Sydney,	165	5	0	
	Macquarie University	40	4	0	
	University of Newcastle	76	4	0	
	University of New South Wales	180	4	0	
	The University of New England	200	1	0	

WA	Edith Cowan University	88	3	3	
	Murdoch University	66	3	0	
ACT	University of Canberra	63	2	0	
	Australian National University	80	5	0	
Total		2138	70	13	3

Table 64
HEIs offering Chinese language in 1992, including numbers of students and staff

In addition the University of Tasmania hopes to introduce Chinese language study in 1993 or 1994.

Although there was little data received on the numbers of post-graduates studying Chinese language, discussions with teachers suggested that the numbers overall were very low.

5.2 Teaching Methodologies for Chinese Language

Since the 1950s there has been considerable debate over the desired methodology for the teaching of a second language. Since the 1970s, language teaching theory has focused increasingly on the needs of the learners themselves. This has involved the definition of the range of competencies that a learner must possess to become an effective communicator. These competences include linguistic and socio-linguistic, discourse, strategic, socio-cultural and social elements (Ingleson 1989:113).

It is clear from discussions with teacher educators and language teachers, at all levels, that the term "communicative methodology" has a variety of interpretations and is deployed in many disparate ways. It, as McMeniman states in a published interview with Barry Leal, has also been corrupted in practice. She goes onto say that the polarisation of "fluency, function, communication, competence and language, against accuracy, form, structure, grammar or linguistic competence was a false and incorrect one." (1992:27) According to McMeniman people do not understand the difference between communicative competence and the communicative approach. She stresses that :

> Communicative competence as a theory has never neglected grammar - indeed, grammatical competence is the only way one can generate language for one's own purposes. (1992:27)

An exact definition of what communicative competence does mean is not an aim of this report. Indeed, given the emphasis on flexibility within the "communicative" framework, rigid definitions would only lead to dogmatism. Communicative methodologies should be reflexive, responding to different learning demands with the appropriate responses. It is clear, however, that a "communicative" approach should be one that takes a functional view of language. Language is not the object of study or the end in itself, but a means of achieving the communication of meanings as effectively as possible in concrete situations. Farquhar offers a workable definition when she describes communicative competence as

> the ability not to apply the grammatical rules of a language in order to form grammatically correct sentences, but also to know when and where to use these sentences and to whom. (1992:1)

Competence, therefore involves a cultural element.

Brindley, quoted in Bowden and Quinn's *Approaches to the Teaching of Asian Languages in Australia* (1988) published in Ingleson's report offers a checklist which provides a broad set of principles to which communicative teachers would subscribe and is quoted in full below:

- Language is not a static system. It is created through interaction.
- Language learning does not consist merely of internalizing a list of structural terms. It is a process of learning how to negotiate meaning in a particular socio-cultural context. Considerations of meaning rather than form will therefore determine content.
- Language leaning activities will be more effective if they are centred around the needs and interests of the learners.
- Language learning materials should, similarly, be related to the 'learners' needs and interests and present learners with the opportunity for genuine communication.
- effective communication is more important than structural accuracy, particularly at the beginning stages of language learning. Errors are a manifestation of learning taking place. (1989b:165)

Ingleson stressed that teaching methodologies in the tertiary sector were not adequate, and *must* "be upgraded, made more flexible and more innovative, and common measures of proficiency established and implemented" (1989b:113).

It is clear from discussions with tertiary staff that there has been some response to Ingleson's call. However, the response has been limited, especially in the area of recruitment processes, where HEIs often employ language teachers with higher degrees rather than qualifications in teaching methodologies. This is not to say that only teachers with these qualifications should be employed by language departments. A good deal of the activities of language departments are aimed at integrating the language into the study of the history, economics, literature and society of the target country and a wide range of expertise is often necessary to accomplish this. It is merely to say that in the past the balance between expertise in the language area and the other disciplines has tended to show a tendency towards the latter. Also, those HEI staff that have trained specifically in language would be more likely to have high proficiencies across all macro-skills.

There is another aspect to the question of balance among teaching staff. Currently a large proportion of teachers in HEIs are L1 speakers of the language and there is no doubt that they have and will continue to provide a valuable resource for Chinese language study in Australia. This has been necessary because of the difficulties with the supply of competent L2 speakers in the past. There is now a nucleus of very good L2 speakers available and these people should be utilised to provide suitable role

models for students. The best possible results may well be attained from a balance between L1 and L2 speaking teachers.

The realisation of the ALLP objectives, outlined in Section 2.1.1, such as improved utilisation and acquisition of language skills, ultimately depends on the quality of language teaching in the classroom. The Council of Europe's project *Learning and Teaching Modern Languages for Communication* (1987:17-19), widely accepted as a model for language provision, emphasised the crucial role quality teaching had to play and strongly encouraged teachers to achieve a more communicative approach to language teaching. In this respect, the HEIs are crucial; they not only teach languages but prepare teachers for the primary and secondary sectors. The quality of teaching, however, is not the only important feature of a language provision at the tertiary level.

5.3 Structure of Degree Courses

The flexibility in the structure of Asian language courses that Ingleson called for in his 1989 report has been achieved to some extent. Most universities now offer a number of entrance points to cope with the demand of a wide range of language proficiencies. La Trobe, for example, offers three entrance points and the possibility of three, four or five years of continuous study in Chinese language. Our survey of the individual HEIs revealed a dramatic increase in the variety of course titles that were offered.

A number of the tertiary teachers interviewed stated that the most pressing problem for Chinese language teachers was the diverse range of students' experiences and abilities in the same classroom. Recent initiatives to construct a more flexible course structure may well alleviate many of these difficulties. However, at the same time, the delivery of a number of different courses to cater for the range of students also demands more institutional support, including funding, and often more effort on behalf of the already busy teaching staff. New courses demand extra curriculum development, as well as new materials and added assessment pressures. The increased rate of Chinese immigration, that is discussed in Section 8.2, indicates that this broad range of students entering university courses will continue.

Less successful has been Ingleson's call for Asian studies to be integrated across a larger number of departments within universities. Although this report did not look specifically at integration rates for Chinese language across department curriculums, discussions with staff highlighted a general lack of interest shown by the students in combining language with their own specific disciplines.

5.4 Levels of Proficiency and Contact Hours of Teaching

Under the current three year undergraduate degree it is very difficult to achieve fluency in Chinese language. A United States government research report has recommend that an average of 840 hours of study for European languages, 1,140 hours for Indonesian and Hindi, 1,800 for Thai and

Vietnamese and 2,400 hours for Chinese, Arabic, Korean and Japanese is needed to achieve a basic proficiency (AIHE 1989a:113). The estimates for Chinese languages, therefore, are almost three times that required by European languages. More importantly, these figures represented almost five times the number of hours that Australian students are on average receiving. Ingleson reported that, on average, Australian undergraduate students received between 5 and 8 hours a week with a total three 3 year course adding up to 504 hours of language teaching. Finding increased time in an already crowded and financially strained university system is more than a difficult task.

That report also provided an outline for an Asian Languages Policy for the tertiary sector. This policy must have two components. Firstly, a set of strategies was needed to meet immediate and short term national needs, including the provision of high quality intensive courses. These courses could be provided in a number of formats, including summer schools, year-long intensive language courses, possibly based on the Full year Asian Language Concentration program at Cornell University and immersion courses within the current university structures themselves (1989a:242). The report strongly recommended that these courses should be equivalent to a full-year tertiary course (160 hours) and be recognised by the host institution as credit earning for degree purposes. The report also strongly recommended that universities implement in-country language training. Secondly, strategies should be developed to meet medium and long term needs. These should demand a steady broadening of the base of Asian language study, so in the medium and long term, adequate numbers of "Asia literate" students can be achieved (1989a:227).

Our survey of HEIs showed that many of the concerns put forward by the Ingleson report have been taken seriously by the tertiary sector. Most HEIs now have formal arrangements with universities in mainland China or Taiwan, or at least are in the process of establishing formal links. There has been a proliferation of intensive summer courses in universities and institutions associated with those universities (e.g. Institutes of Modern Languages).

These extension courses are particularly important for Chinese, given the extra time required for students of Chinese language to gain equivalent standards of proficiency as those students in other languages.

Recommendation 16
The report recommends continued support for Recommendation 38 of the Ingleson report: "We recommend that institutions support an expansion in summer intensive courses in Asian languages and that these be recognised by the host institution as credit earning for degree purposes".

There has been considerable interest in developing formal, accredited, in-country programs in the tertiary sector. There are a number of quite innovative programs currently operating. La Trobe offer a half-year course at the East China Normal University (one of the PRC's key universities) that is funded by the International Development of Australian Universities and Colleges (IDP). Under this program La Trobe receives $300,000 for the four years from 1991 to 1993, although only a small portion of these funds is reserved specifically for the In-country Program. Funds also provide

assistance with Australian studies' courses at ECNU, as well as bringing ENCU staff to La Trobe to assist in language studies. The program's success has led La Trobe to commit university funds ($50,000-$60,000) in order to continue after the IDP funds end.

The main features of the La Trobe In-country Program are as follows:

- Ten students from the 1994-96 and 7 students from 1993 can be given free accommodation in the ECNU University's Foreign Block.
- Course fees of US$1 000 for each of 10 students are paid for by La Trobe University.
- In 1993 only a travel subsidy of $1,500 per student is available from IDP funds.
- Students are eligible for Austudy subject to the usual conditions and have to pay the HECS charge.
- There is provision for fee-paying students over the 10 student annual limit.
- Students attend approximately 20 hours of classes a week, 5 mornings a week and can also attend an hour of cultural study and participate in various extra-curricular activities.
- Any student who has completed at least a first year program at La Trobe University is eligible to apply for the in-country program.
- The China In-country Studies Program is fully-accredited and is valued at 1.5 points or the equivalent of one full-time unit undertaken for 18 months. EFTSU for in-country studies accrues to the faculty.
- So far IDP funds have provided airfares for 1 La Trobe staff member to accompany the students for their first week in China, assist with testing and class allocation and view ECNU teachers in the classroom with a view to choosing prospective teachers to teach Chinese for a year at La Trobe.
- At the end of their stay the students undertake tests set by ECNU and if desired the nation-wide proficiency test, Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi. Students are awarded 70 percent of their assessment for in-country studies by the ECNU and 30 percent for research assignments set and assessed by La Trobe staff.

Although China is a reasonably inexpensive country to live and study in, worthwhile in-country courses for large numbers of students are an expensive business. It is inevitable that at some time students will have to bear some of the funding costs. DEET, which has overarching HECS charges for Australian university organised overseas study programs, needs to carefully examine the options and costs for specific programs, such as in-country Chinese language programs. It is often much cheaper, for example, for a student to by-pass our university system and enrol in a premier institute, such as the Beijing Language Institute (BLI) at a minimal cost. BLI gives students a proficiency rating as part of its assessment procedures. In fact, teachers often recommend this self-study option to students, whom they know have limited financial resources or borrowing capacity. This then raises questions of equity. If governments are serious about achieving increased numbers of fluent Chinese speakers, a considerable amount of funding must be made available to HEIs so they can construct high quality programs like the one being run by La Trobe University. Murdoch University has also initiated a government funded "Asian Language Year" of in-country study which offers some comparison with the La Trobe strategy and is on offer to a consortium of

universities. Such rationalisation of access, funding and administration to a variety of Asian language students is perhaps an appropriate model for Asian languages (including Chinese) delivery in the target country.

Recommendation 17
The report recommends that Commonwealth funds support research into the best form of incountry language programs and then support the implementation of these courses across Australia.

Tertiary teachers, as well as students, should be given an increased opportunity to visit Chinese speaking countries to help maintain their own language skills and foster greater research in their own specialised areas.

Chinese language courses, however, are still in the large part taught separately from the other disciplines offered by the universities. Ingleson's call for the integration of Asian language with the disciplines of law, commerce, business and engineering has largely gone unheeded. There are a number of promising collaborations underway at various universities, but they remain the exception rather than the rule and authorities need to encourage universities to implement the flexibility that these sort of programs require.

5.5 Materials and Resources

There is a dearth of suitable resources for the study of Chinese language at the tertiary level. Most tertiary institutions throughout Australia use one of the variety of texts that are produced in mainland China, the most popular being the *Practical Chinese Reader*. Such texts were designed for the teaching of western students studying in China. In China these students are involved in intensive programs, often 20 hours per week with teaching methodologies that are foreign to the Australian classroom. There are two major problems with these texts. Firstly, the methodology is based primarily on the learning of characters. This violates one of the cardinal principles of language learning in Australia - that you teach students to speak first. Secondly, the content is often not relevant to Australian second language learners because it is not functional, and lecturers are forced to spend much of their time developing resources that provide an Australian context to use these texts successfully.

Tertiary teachers have been forced to spend a large amount of energy developing curriculum. Phillip Lee at the University of New South Wales is currently developing a text for Australian tertiary students beginning the study of Chinese. Many teachers from other universities, supplement the PRC produced texts with Australian materials they have produced themselves.

There is, therefore, a strong need for funding to develop a text or set of resources with methodologies and content that is suitable for Australian universities.

There, also, has been little dissemination or discussion of ways of extrapolating or sharing these texts. We have already recommended that a

national clearinghouse be established, and this should function for the tertiary sector as well.

Recommendation 18
The report recommends as a priority for the tertiary sector that funding for the development and production of Chinese language texts (both for general and special purpose courses) be made available by government bodies as soon as possible.

In one sense, the traditional university research and promotion guidelines have worked against professional curriculum development. It is often viewed not as a proper research activity and subsequently has not been funded by prestigious granting bodies such as the Australian Research Council. Tertiary level teachers see "the writing on the wall" and concentrate on linguistics, literature and other such theoretically grounded research as more rewarding in the system. Practical research, useful in the classroom, is not necessarily similarly rewarded. DEET's recent initiatives with grants for quality and innovative teaching (e.g., National Priority Reserve Fund) is beginning to redress this imbalance and could well be extended to curriculum development as well as to quality teaching.

One of the major areas identified by the *Companion Volume* of the *Australian Languages and Literacy Policy* was the aligning of Asian Language skills with industry requirements. Research into language proficiency and language needs of industry has been conducted by staff in the Centre for Applied Linguistics and Languages (CALL) at Griffith University. CALL has been internationally recognised for its work on the assessment of language proficiency and for the implications this has for language proficiency scales for curriculum development and for industry. CALL has developed proficiency scales (ASLPR) for Chinese and is developing ones for Japanese. Surveys conducted by CALL have found that industry was relatively naive in identifying its language needs, either failing to perceive the relevance of language skills or overstating its requirements (Stanley et al. 1990:98-104). Nevertheless, successful exporting companies invariably made considerable and effective use of language skills. This is consistent with the findings regarding successful overseas companies, which frequently implement systematic language policies. An effective language policy, therefore, must identify more precisely the needs of industry for specific language skills. In recent years, HEIs have become more aware of the needs of industry, as shown by the increased number of special and applied language subjects on offer. The market, of course, should not dominate curriculum. This report, however, supports a closer collaboration between HEIs and industry so as to assure a diversity of outcomes for tertiary students, including a higher proportion with skills that are directly related to the needs of industry.

The realisation of Australian languages policy objectives, such as improved utilisation and acquisition of language skills, ultimately depends on the quality teaching of quality programs. There is therefore, a need for an increased amount of research into the question of how best to achieve this in the tertiary sector.

5.6 Data on Tertiary Institutions

All the HEIs that offered Chinese language were questioned about the numbers of students, numbers of teaching staff, areas of research and future plans for that institution. Unfortunately, not all HEIs responded. A profile of those that did reply is provided below. Those institutions that did respond, on occasions did not necessarily answer every question.

University of New South Wales
The University of NSW has had a history of links with Asia. For many years it was the major provider of Colombo Plan programs. It is currently the home of the Australia-Asia Institute. The University's Arts and Social Sciences Faculty commenced the study of Modern Standard Chinese in the first semester of 1991. This course was carried out within its Languages Unit which was established in 1990. The major focus of the Languages Unit is language acquisition. In 1992, major sequences were offered in the beginners stream, and in the speakers of other dialects stream. Native speakers have been able to undertake an Interpreting and Translating for Specific Purposes stream and in 1993 a third year will be offered.

Chinese has emerged as the most dynamic teaching area of the Languages unit, with 50 percent of the Unit's student load. The range of offerings for a new unit is considerable. The development of new subjects and materials has been a focus of a great deal of the activity within the Chinese language section. The Chinese Character Tutor, involving a computer assisted language learning (CALL) approach has been developed by the Unit with funding from the New South Wales Education Training Foundation.

The introductory subject text developed by the Unit is also being adopted by Macquarie University as the core document for a distance-learning package.

The Chinese Translating and Interpreting stream of subjects was, in 1991, accredited by National Accreditation Authority for Translating and Interpreting (NAATI) for the delivery of NAATI Level 2.

In 1991 and 1992 the Asian Languages Summer School was held through the cooperation of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, the Faculty of Commerce and Economics, and the Institute of Languages. The Summer School aimed to offer a wider and more flexible provision of Asian language subjects outside the normal schedule for students to achieve higher levels of competence and the opportunity for faster progression.

The University of New South Wales as yet does not offer postgraduate study in Chinese language, but plans to do so in the near future.

Staff:
Three, all native speakers, two with Beijing qualifications and one with Australian qualifications. They intend to include an L2 teacher in the near future.

Research interests:
a Curriculum Development
b Tertiary text almost completed

c Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) Program almost fully developed

Future Projects:

a Further development of CALL
b Developing links with Universities in the PRC
c Consolidation of staff in profile
d Clearer definition of role of the Summer School
e Promotion of the Diploma in Asian Studies, through cooperation with the professional Faculties

Institutional links (including) In-country study arrangements:

Year	Semester	Level	Subject	Credit	Male	Female	Total
1990	1	First	Intro. Chinese A	12/32	6	19	25
			Intro. Chinese B	12/32	4	8	12
	2	First	Intro. Chinese A		6	19	25
			Intro. Chinese B		4	8	12
1991	1	First	Intro Chinese A		19	33	52
			Intro Chinese B		8	23	31
			Chinese C		10	21	31
		2/3rd	Interm Chinese A		6	13	19
			Interm Chinese B		2	9	11
			Advanced Chinese A		2	1	3
	2		Intro Chinese A		18	33	53
			Intro Chinese B		8	23	31
			Interm Chinese C		9	21	30
		2/3rd	Interm Chinese A		6	13	19
			Interm Chinese B		2	9	11
			Advanced Chinese A		2	1	3
1992	1	1st	Intro Chinese A		20	23	43
			Intro Chinese B		7	12	19
			Interm Chinese		2	14	16
		2/3rd	Interm Chinese A		10	11	21
			Interm Chinese B		4	6	10
			Advanced Chinese A		1	4	5
			Advanced Chinese B		1	5	6
			Special Purpose Chinese		6	12	18

Table 65
Student enrolments in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences Languages Unit, UNSW

Edith Cowan University

Edith Cowan University came into being with the amalgamation of the Colleges of Advanced Education in Western Australia. These institutions offered a wide variety of courses as well as emphases within these courses. A degree with a major in Chinese is made up of 20 units which has 12 Chinese language units, six in a minor area and four electives.

Year	Semester	Level	Subject	Credit	Male	Female	Total
1990	1		CHI1001 Intro to Chinese	1/22	8	10	18
			CHI1002 Basic Chinese	1/22	7	6	13
			CHI1003 Elementary Chinese	1/22	7	6	13
			CHI1004 Post-elem. Chinese	1/22	7	6	13
	2	1	CHI1002 Basic Chinese	1/22	2	3	5
			CHI1120 Chinese Society 1	1/22	5	4	9
			CHI1130 Chinese Life and En.		4	4	8
			CHI1140 Chinese Sc. and Tech	5	5	10	
			CHI1151 Chinese Arts		5	6	11
1991	1	1	CHI1001 Intro to Chinese		2	7	9
			CHI1002 Basic Chinese		2	7	9
			CHI1003 Elementary Chinese		4	9	13
			CHI1004 Post-elem. Chinese		2	7	9
		2/3	CHI2220 Chinese Society 2		5	10	15
		2/3	CHI2230 Chinese Life and En.2	4	10	14	
1991	2	1	CHI1004 Post-elem. Chinese		3	2	5
			CHI1120 Chinese Society 1		3	5	8
			CHI1130 Chinese Life and En.		3	6	9
			CHI1140 Chinese Sc. and Tech	3	6	9	
			CHI1151 Chinese Arts		4	6	10
1991	2	2/3	CHI2240 Chinese Sc and Tech.	6	7	13	
			CHI2250 Chinese arts 2		5	6	11
1992	1	1	CH1101 Chinese (Introd 1)	"	6	12	18

			CH1101 Chinese (Introd 2)		6	12	18
			CHI1165 Chinese (China)		2	1	3
1992	1	2/3	CHI2325 Chinese Society 2	"	3	8	11
			CHI2345 Chinese Sc & Tech 2		3	7	10
			CH13301 Chinese Advanced 1		1	1	2
			CHI3425 Chinese Society 3		3	4	7
			CHI3445 Chinese Sc&Tech 3		3	5	8

Table 66
Student enrolments in the Chinese major degree at Edith Cowan University

Year	Semester	Degree	Male	Female	Total
1987	1	Grad Dip Ed.	0	2	2
1987	2	Grad Dip Ed	1	1	2
1988	1	Grad Dip Ed	1	1	2
1988	2	Grad Dip Ed	0	0	0
1989	1	Grad Dip Ed	0	1	1
1989	2	Grad Dip Ed	1	1	2
		4th/post-grad.	0	2	2
1990	1	Grad Dip Ed	0	0	0
1990	2	Grad Dip Ed	0	3	3
		4th/post-grad.	0	1	1
1991	1	Grad Dip Ed	2	0	2
1991	2	Grad Dip Ed	2	0	2
1992	1	Grad Dip Ed	3	3	6

Table 67
Postgraduate study in Chinese, Edith Cowan (including honours students)

Griffith University

Griffith University was established in 1971. In 1992, the University offered four Asian languages: Chinese, Japanese, Indonesian and Korean. The University has always had a strong focus on Asian studies through its Faculty of Asian and International Studies (AIS) (formally the Department of Modern Asian Studies). Students in AIS are offered a common foundation year, with the exception of the specific language the students choose to study. Chinese is offered as a double unit, full year subject in the foundation program and a variety of single unit subjects in the following years. Courses offered in second and third year include: Literature and Film in contemporary China, Chinese for Business, Chinese language - Print Media and Chinese for International Relations. Students that study a full major in Chinese language are expected to have completed approximately 540 hours. Although there is no firm structure for multiple-entry, students with a background in the language may enter the course in the second or third years.

The courses are aimed at integrating language studies into various other fields of the study in the social sciences.

The Key Centre for Asian languages and Studies and the Centre for Applied Linguistics and Language are also attached to the Faculty of Asian and International Studies.

AIS Staff:
six teaching staff, four L1 and two L2 speakers
Research interests:
a Curriculum development
b Materials development

Future Projects:
Fourth year language course, possibly in-country.

Institutional links including In-country study arrangements:
Zhongshan University, Chengdu University - as yet no formalised in-country provision within the course itself.

Postgraduate study (including honours students):
Modern Asian Studies do not have any post-graduates specifically studying language.

Year	Semester	Level	Subject	Credit	Male	Female	Total
1987	1	1	A1102 Found. Prog.	2/8	35	40	75
		2/3	A1211 Chinese 2A	1/8	13	32	45
			A1301 Journal. Chinese A	1/8	6	11	17
			A1303 Mod Chinese Liter A		1	4	5
			A1305 Spoken Chinese A		5	10	15
1987	2	1	A1102 Found. Prog.	2/8	35	40	75
		2/3	A1212 Chinese 2B	1/8	5	25	30
			A1302 Journal. Chinese B		3	12	15
			A1304 Mod Chinese Liter B		0	0	0
			A1306 Spoken Chinese B		2	5	7
1988	1	1	A1102 Found. Prog.	2/8	33	39	72
		2/3	A1211 Chinese 2A	2/8	22	28	50
			A1311 Chinese 3A	2/8	4	19	23
1988	2	1	A1102 Found. Prog.	2/8	33	39	72
		2/3	A1212 Chinese 2B	2/8	23	32	46
			A1312 Chinese 3B	2/8	7	16	23
1989	1	1	A1102 Found. Prog.	2/8	47	69	116
		2/3	A1211 Chinese 2A	2/8	14	22	36

			A1311 Chinese 3A	2/8	14	19	33
1989	2	1	A1102 Found. Prog.	2/8	47	69	116
		2/3	A1212 Chinese 2B	2/8	12	17	29
			A1312 Chinese 3B	2/8	7	16	23
1990	1	1	A1102 Found. Prog.	2/8	28	25	53
		2/3	A1211 Chinese 2A	2/8	17	33	50
			A1311 Chinese 3A	2/8	12	13	25
	2	1	A1102 Found. Prog.	2/8	28	25	53
		2/3	A1212 Chinese 2B	2/8	16	30	46
			A1312 Chinese 3B	2/8	9	12	21
1991	1	1	AL11012 Found Prog	2/8	20	14	34
		2/3	AL12011 Chinese 2A	2/8	12	8	20
			AL13001 Print Media	1/8	10	17	27
			AL13002 Literature & Film	1/8	5	9	14
			AL13003 Chin for Int Rel	1/8	16	24	40
	2	1	AL12011 Found Prog	2/8	20	14	34
		2/3	AL12012 Chinese 2B	2/8	11	7	18
			AL13006 Chin for Int Bus	1/8	5	16	17
			AL13002 Advan Chinese	2/8	9	14	23
1992	1	1	AL11012 Found Prog	2/8	21	46	67
	1	2/3	AL12011 Chinese 2A	2/8	11	8	19
			AL12001 Print Media	1/8	9	6	15
			AL13002 Literature & Film	1/8	4	5	9
			AL13003 Chin for Int Rel	1/8	17	10	27

Table 68
Enrolment figures in Faculty of Asian and International Studies, Modern Asian Studies, Griffith University

Note: considerable drop off in numbers after Tiananmen incident in 1989.

University of Southern Queensland
Staff:
One full-time lecturer, L1 speaker with a B.A. Beijing Normal University currently enrolled in part-time Grad. Dip. Education USQ.

Research Interests:
None noted.

Formal in-country programs:
The University of Southern Queensland has formal arrangements for staff and student exchange with Hubei Teachers University and Zhongnan University of Economics and Finance in Wuhan, Hubei Province and Shanghai Teachers University.

Future Plans:
Provision of a full-time undergraduate sequence in Modern Standard Chinese for distance education.

Special Features of the Department:
Visiting scholar scheme with specific Chinese Universities.

Year	Semester	Level	Subject	Credit	Male	Female	Total
1989	1&2	1	Introduction Mandarin	2/8	6	11	17
1990	1&2	1	Introduction Mandarin		7	7	14
		2/3	Intermediate Mandarin	2/8	5	5	10
1991	1&2	1	Introduction Mandarin	2/8	7	17	24
		2/3	Intermediate Mandarin		4	5	9
		2/3	Advanced Mandarin	2/8	3	5	8
1992	1&2	1	Introduction Mandarin	2/8	16	26	42
		2/3	Intermediate Mandarin		4	7	11
		2/3	Advanced Mandarin		4	1	5

Table 69
Enrolments at the School of Arts, Asian Studies Program, University of Southern Queensland

The University of Sydney
In the degree structure at the University of Sydney, students must undertake a minimum of 18 units of study in order to qualify for a Bachelor of Arts. Students usually undertake: Three 2 unit subjects at Level 1 or Four 2 unit subjects at Level 1 and then three 2 unit subjects at level 2. Students consequently take two or three 2 unit subjects at level three.

All courses offered in the Chinese Studies Department of the School of Asian Studies are full-year courses.

Postgraduate records for Chinese Studies are unavailable since 1989.

Year	Semester	Level	Subject	Credit	Male	Female	Total
1987	1&2	1	Chinese 1A	1/9	18	16	34
		1	Chinese 1B		4	8	12
		2/3	Chinese 2A		2	8	10
			Chinese 2B		7	10	17
			Chinese 3A		2	4	6
			Chinese 3B		2	1	3
1988	1&2	1	Chinese 1A	1/9	5	13	18
		1	Chinese 1B		24	20	44
		2/3	Chinese 2A		2	3	5
			Chinese 2B		7	10	17

			Chinese 3A		2	3	5
			Chinese 3B		2	4	6
1989	1&2	1	Chinese 1A	1/9	5	10	15
		1	Chinese 1B		8	17	25
		2/3	Chinese 2A		1	3	4
			Chinese 2B		2	2	4
			Chinese 3A		NDA		
			Chinese 3B		NDA		
1990	1&2	1	Chinese 1A	1/9	8	11	19
		1	Chinese 1B		14	16	30
		2/3	Chinese 2A		8	6	14
			Chinese 2B		0	8	8
			Chinese 3A		2	3	5
			Chinese 3B		1	0	1
Total 1990*					33	44	77
1991	1&2	1	Chinese 1A	1/9	13	18	31
		1	Chinese 1B		19	16	35
		2/3	Chinese 2A		10	6	16
			Chinese 2B		8	11	19
			Chinese 3A		8	9	17
			Chinese 3B		0	4	4
Total 1991*					58	64	122
1992	1&2	1	Chinese 1A	1/9	4	11	15
		1	Chinese 1B		13	18	31
		1	Chinese 1AB		7	6	13
		2/3	Chinese 2A		4	13	17
			Chinese 2B		3	11	14
			Chinese 3A		7	6	13
			Chinese 3B		6	9	15
Total 1992*					44	74	118

Table 70
Enrolments in the Faculty of Arts - School of Asian Studies, Chinese Studies, University of Sydney
** Data contains a certain amount of double counting of students*

Year	Number
1989	22
1990	26
1991	24
1992	30

Table 71
Postgraduate enrolments, University of Sydney

The University of Queensland

Staff:

Senior Lecturer	BA,Dip Ed (Beijing), MPhil (Hong Kong), PhD (Sydney) - *Chinese Philosophy, Literature and Language*
3 x Lecturer -	BA PhD (Qld) - *Chinese Buddhism and Linguistics* MA (PRC),PhD (UCLA) - *Linguistics* BA, MA (Taiwan), PhD (Calif) - *Chinese linguistics, art literature and religion.*
2 x Senior Tutors	BA, BD, MA (Qld), - *Tang-Sung literature*
Research Interests:	Chinese literature, linguistics, language teaching methodology and philosophy.

Formal in-country program: Approximately 7 students spend 12 months at Fudan University in the PRC each year. The students receive Austudy during their stay and are accredited for their study by the University. The university also has an exchange agreement with the Beijing Institute of Foreign Languages.

Future Plans:
A new chair has been appointment for Chinese Studies. Major developments are anticipated to follow.

Special Features of the Department: Coursework Honours Program, courses for background speakers and a strong postgraduate language program. Operates closely with the Key Centre for Asian Languages and Studies.

Year	Semester	Level	Subject	Credit	Total
1987	1	1	JC 110	10/240	41
			JC 111		37
		2/3	JC 213		21
			JC 214		19
			JC 313		11
			JC 314		15
1987	2	NDA			
1988	1	1	JC 110		40
		1	JC 111		37
		2/3	JC 213		22
			JC 214		17
			JC 313		10
			JC 314		6
	2	1	JC 200		29
		1	JC 201		27
		2/3	JC 223		17
			JC 224		14
			JC 323		10
			JC 324		8
1989	1	1	JC 110		45
		1	JC 111		39
		2/3	JC 213		23
			JC 214		15
			JC 313		14
			JC 314		16
	2	1	JC 200		37
		1	JC 201		28
		2/3	JC 223		21
			JC 224		11
			JC 323		11
			JC 324		17
1990	1	1	JC 110		41
		1	JC 111		43
		2/3	JC 213		21
			JC 214		21
			JC 313		14
			JC 314		5
	2	1	JC 200		30
		1	JC 201		27
		2/3	JC 223		19
			JC 224		18
			JC 323		12
			JC 324		5
1991	1	1	JC 110		30

		1	JC 111		33
		2/3	JC 213		23
			JC 214		16
			JC 313		6
			JC 314		8
	2	1	JC 200		26
		1	JC 201		25
		2/3	JC 223		18
			JC 224		17
			JC 323		6
			JC 324		7
1992	1	1	JC 110		29
		1	JC 111		39
		2/3	JC 213		27
			JC 214		23
			JC 313		6
			JC 314		5

Table 72
Enrolments in the Faculty of Arts, Japanese and Chinese Studies, University of Queensland

Year	Semester	Degree	Number
1988	2	NDA	11
1989	1		12
	2		13
1990	1		15
	2		19
1991	1		19
	2		15
1992	1		12

Table 73
Postgraduate study, University of Queensland

Macquarie University
Staff
1 x Professor
1 x Associate Professor
4 x Senior Lecturers and Lecturers (2 native-speakers)
4 x Part-time Tutors (all native-speakers)

Research Interests:
Curriculum development, especially for distance programs; linguistics; Chinese philosophy; literature and poetry; performing arts.

Formal in-country program:
Although the University does not have a formal program within its degree course, it does encourage students to study the language in-country. Students from Macquarie do attend intensive summer courses at Xian Foreign Languages Institute and also have attended language courses at Beijing Normal University. The University has an academic exchange with Beijing Normal University.

Future Plans:
The University plans to further develop in-country and residential programs in Taiwan and the PRC.

Special Features of the Department:
The Department works very closely with the Centre for the Study of Chinese Political Economy. A project officer is developing, with DEET

funding, a distance program for Chinese language at tertiary level. The Department works closely with other Departments to offer joint degrees in language and politics and economics.

Year	When offered	Level	Subject	Credit	Male	Female	Total
1989	F/Year	1	CHN100 Elem Chinese	6/24	20	32	52
	Vacation	1	CHN141 Reading Course	2/24	14	13	27
	F/Year	2/3	CHN202 Intro to Chin Lit	2/24	4	11	15
			CHN210 Inter Chinese	6/24	10	15	25
	vacation	2/3	CHN201 Inter Reading	2/24	4	6	10
	F/Year		CHN310 Mod Ch Lit	4/24	4	6	10
			CHN312 Prose\Poetry	4/24	4	5	9
			CHN313 Documents	4/24	5	4	9
			CHN324 Advanced	6/24	5	8	13
1990	sem 1	1	CHN104 Intro Chinese	3/24	11	21	32
	F/Year	1	CHN107 Ch for BS*	3/24	9	20	29
	sem 2	1	CHN105 intro Ch 2	3/24	9	20	29
	vacation	1	CHN106 Intro Read	4/24	7	16	23
	F/Year	2	CHN210 Inter Chinese	6/24	5	25	30
		2	CHN202 Intro to Lit Ch	2/24	6	23	29
	Vacation	2	CHN201 Interm Reading	2/24	4	19	23
	F/Year	3	CHN310 Mod Ch Lit	4/24	5	3	8
		3	CHN311 Pre-Mod Lit	4/24	4	4	8
		3	CHN324 Advanced	6/24	3	9	12
	Sem 1	3	CHN322 CH News Anal	3/24	4	6	10
	Sem 2	3	CHN323 Econ Document	3/24	4	4	8
1991	Sem 1	1	CHN104 Intro Chinese 1	3/24	17	19	34
	F/Year	1	CHN107 Intro for BS	3/24	5	11	16
	F/Year	1	CHN108 Chinese Lan 1	6/24	8	12	20
	Sem 2	1	CHN105 Intro Chinese 2	3/24	13	16	29
	Vacation	1	CHN106 Intro Reading	4/24	9	10	19
	Vacation	1	CHN109 First Year Read	4/24	3	9	12
	F/Year	2	CHN202 Intro to Lit Ch	2/24	2	11	13
		2	CHN207Inter for BS	3/24	1	8	9

	Sem 1	3	CHNChinese News Anal	3/24	3	13	16
	F/Year	3	CHN310Mod Chinese Lit	4/24	2	8	10
	F/Year	3	CHN312Prose and Poetry	4/24	5	6	11
	F/Year	3	CHN324 Adv Chinese	6/24	5	19	24
	Sem 2	3	CHN323 Econ Docum	3/24	2	10	12
1992	Sem 1	1	CHN104 Intro Chinese 1	3/24	9	10	19
	F/Year	1	CHN107 Intro for BS	3/24	4	10	14
	F/Year	1	CHN108 Chinese Lang 1	6/24	4	11	15
	Sem 2	1	CHN106 Intro Chinese 2	3/24	8	9	17
	Vacation	1	CHN109 1st Year Read	4/24	1	3	4
	Vacation	1	CHN106 Intro Reading	4/24	6	8	14
	F/Year	2	CHN207 Inter for BS	3/24	2	16	18
	F/Year	2	CHN220 Chinese Lan 2	6/24	5	14	19
	Sem 2	2	CHN222 Intro to Classical	3/24	6	13	19
	Vacation	2	CHN221 2nd Year Read	4/24	4	14	18
	Sem 1	3	CHN322 News Anal	3/24	1	4	5
	F/Year	3	CHN310 Mod Chin Lit	4/24	1	4	5
	F/Year	3	CHN315 Chin Cin & Rad	4/24	3	4	7
	F/Year	3	CHN324 Advanced Chin	6/24	3	9	12
	Sem 2	3	CHN323 Chinese Econ	3/24	1	4	5

Table 74
Enrolments in the School of Modern Languages, Chinese Studies

Year	Semester	Degree	Number	Comments
1989		NDA	14	research
1990			17	research
1991			16	research
			4	MA coursework
1992	1		12	research
			6	MA coursework

Table 75
Postgraduate study

University of New England
Staff:
1 x Lecturer, MA Language teaching method and Communicative competence

Research Interests:
Language teaching method and Communicative competence.

Formal in-country program:
Although there is no formal program in the PRC, The University of New England is investigating the possibility of a program with several Universities in Tianjin.

Future Plans:
The University plans to introduce 2nd and 3rd year units of Chinese language in 1993 respectively. Chinese will be offered both internally and externally from 1993.

Special Features of the Department
From the 1st of January 1993 Asian studies/languages staff will be transferred to a new department of Asian Societies and Languages. A new Centre for Asian Studies will also be established at that time.

Year	When offered	Level	Subject	Credit	Male	Female	Total
1990	Sem 1	1	Chinese Language 1	1/8	3	3	6
	Sem 2	1	Chinese Language 2	1/8	2	3	5
1991	Sem 1	1	Chinese Language 1	1/6-1/8	6	5	11
	Sem 2	1	Chinese Language 2	1/6-1/8	6	5	11
1992	Sem 1	1	Chinese Language 1	1/6	10	7	17

Table 76
Enrolment in the Faculty of Education, Social Sciences, University of New England
** Data contains a certain amount of double counting of students*

There is no Postgraduate Study of Chinese language at the University of New England

Ballarat University College
The Ballarat University College began Chinese language study in the second semester of 1992. Only one subject is currently offered, but expansion to provide a continuous program is planned for future years. The Asian Studies Unit currently services the language needs of students in Business, Information, Humanities, Librarianship and Computing Departments. The base text used is the distance program designed at the University of New South Wales, Introductory Chinese for Australian Undergraduate Students. The gender ratio was estimated at 1:1.

Staff:
1 x Lecturer

Year	When offered	Level	Subject	Credit	Male	Fem	Total
1992	Sem 2	1	Intro Chinese				36

Table 77
Enrolments in the Asian Studies Unit, Chinese Studies, Ballarat University College

The University of Adelaide

The University of Adelaide has taught Chinese language since 1975.

Staff:

1 x Professor
1 x Senior lecturer
5 x Lecturers

Year	When offered	Level	Subject	Total
1987	F/Year	1	Chinese 1	72
		2	Chinese 2	32
		3	Chinese 3	14
1988	F/Year	1	Chinese 1	88
		2	Chinese 2	36
		3	Chinese 3	19
1989	F/Year	1	Chinese 1	95
		2	Chinese 2	64
		3	Chinese 3	13
1990	F/Year	1	Chinese 1	61
		2	Chinese 2	76
		3	Chinese 3	32
1991	F/Year	1	Chinese 1	59
		2	Chinese 2	56
		3	Chinese 3	31
1992	F/Year	1	Chinese 1	46
		2	Chinese 2	37
		3	Chinese 3	40

Table 78
Enrolments at Centre for Asian Studies, Chinese Studies University of Adelaide

Year	Number
1987	0
1988	3
1989	5
1990	0
1991	4
1992	1

Table 79
Postgraduate study in Chinese, University of Adelaide

James Cook University

James Cook University first offered Chinese language in first semester 1991. The University has an Institute of Modern Languages attached.

Staff:

1 x Part-time Lecturer, BA, Qualified Translator/interpreter First class (UK)
2 x Visiting lecturers — Shanghai Teachers' College, Shanghai Normal University

In-country program:

Nil

Future Plans:

To provide second year courses.

Year	When offered	Level	Credit	Male	Female	Total
1991	sem 1	1	90/360	14	10	24
	sem 2	1		12	9	21
1992	sem 1	1	90/360	11	10	21

Table 80
Enrolments at Faculty of Arts, Department of Modern Languages, James Cook University

La Trobe University

La Trobe began Chinese language study in 1989. It currently offers three streams of Chinese language study. Students who have a VCE level Chinese, that is five years study to Year 12 enter the A stream. Stream B is for students who come to the university with no formal Chinese language study. The third stream offers Modern Standard Chinese for various dialect speakers. It is possible to study three, four or five years of continuous study at La Trobe. Students with no formal language experience who start in 1B stream can progress through 2B,3B, 4B and then move into the fourth year A stream.

Staff:

1 x Senior lecturer, BA (ANU), Dip Ed(Mel.), PhD (ANU)
1 x Senior Teaching Fellow, BA (Beijing), enrolled PhD student (La Trobe)
2 x exchange teachers on an annual basis from East China Normal University
1 x Currently visiting Lecturer from the USA.

Formal in-country program:

Year	When offered	Level	Subject	Credit	Male	Female	Total
1989	Sem 1		Chinese 1B	1/6	10	10	20
			Chinese 1A/2B	1/6	6	6	12
	Sem 2		Chinese 1B	1/6	7	9	16
			Chinese 1A/2B	1/6	4	4	8
1990	Sem 1		Chinese 1B	1/6	12	17	29
			Chinese 1A/2B	1/6	8	6	14
			Chinese 2A/3B	1/6	6	4	10
	Sem 2		Chinese 1B	1/6	7	14	21
			Chinese 1A/2B	1/6	7	5	12
			Chinese 2A/3B	1/6	4	4	8
1991	Sem 1		Chinese 1B, 1A, 1DS	1/6	21	23	44
			Chinese 2A, 2B, 3A, 3B, 3RC	1/6	7	16	23
	Sem 2		Chinese 1B, 1A, 1DS,	1/6	19	21	40
			Chinese 2A, 2B, 3A, 3B, 3RC	1/6	7	15	22
1992	Sem 1		Chinese 1B, 1A, 1DS	1/6	24	28	52
			Chinese 2A, 2B, 3A, 3B, 3RC, 2DS	1/6	18	24	42

Table 81
Enrolments at School of Humanities, Asian Languages

6.0 TAFE and Further Learning

Baker and White's *Survey of Languages Other than English in TAFE* provides an excellent foundation for a study of LOTEs in the TAFE sector. However, many of the courses that TAFE offer, tend to be ephemeral and change rapidly. As well, TAFE institutions often do not keep accurate records and it proved difficult, in the time available for this project to collect data of any any consequence on the changes since Baker and White's report. A detailed profile of LOTEs in the TAFE and further learning sector would, therefore, require a special study of its own and this section offers only a discussion of the general trends and specific problems in this important sector.

Baker and White estimate that approximately half a million Australians over the age of 24 enrol in TAFE award and non-award courses each year and make up almost 2.5 times the nu.nber enrolled in award courses in HEIs (1991:5). The sheer size of these numbers alone, makes this sector an extremely important one. Recent initiatives taken by governments in response to the Finn, Charmichal and Mayer's committee reports have further highlighted the importance, as well as, the neglect of this area.

TAFE is an umbrella term for a loose set of institutions that offer a variety of courses, that usually emphasise vocational subjects. Each state has its own system with their own individual structures. A detailed description of the variety of structures is given in Baker and White's report (1991:7-10).

TAFE offers a range of levels of language instruction, from the lowest level, recreational/adult education subjects (Stream 1000) to Diploma level courses. These courses are offered in response to student demand or a perceived community need. Higher level LOTE subjects (Stream 2000-4000) are not widespread - presumably because of low demand - and are usually confined to the larger TAFE Colleges (Baker and White, 1991:7).

Despite the constraints of poor data, outlined above, a number of sources could provide information on trends. Unfortunately these institutional trends do not build into any discernible national or State patterns, but remained valid only for that institution alone. For example, one TAFE college in Perth and a CAE in Melbourne noted a drop of enrolments in Chinese after the June 1989 Tiananmen Square incident, no other institution found a similar decline. Over recent years, a number of providers in Sydney have had to cut back on the number of classes offered, while others have reported a marked increase in enrolments. Enrolments overall have decreased and the main reasons offered have been:

a The Tiananmen tragedy,
b Students find Chinese language too difficult,
c Chinese language never seems strong where European languages are popular,
d There is a shortage of teachers outside capital cities,
e Recession results in fewer travellers, and
f Enrolments are encouraged by Federal and State Government fee support subsidies.

Baker and White (1991:61) found that in 1990, Chinese (Cantonese and Modern Standard Chinese) ranked 5th (6.8 percent of total LOTE students), after Japanese (33.6 percent), French (13.6 percent), German (13.0 percent) and Spanish (10.3 percent) in terms of languages chosen by the students responding to their questionnaire. There were, in the same year, 17 Chinese language classes out of a total for LOTE of 259 (Baker and White, 1991:64). The students listed their main reasons for studying a LOTE as travel (17.8 percent), interest in the country (15.6 percent) and for pleasure or curiosity (14.4 percent). Five point two percent of students intended to use their new language skills in their current employment, while 12.6 percent hoped that it would be useful for further employment (Baker and White, 1991:82). Table 82 shows the distribution of Chinese language programs in TAFE colleges throughout Australia. Because of the ephemeral nature of TAFE classes it was difficult to achieve precise figures on enrolments, so the figures tabulated here are estimates calculated by multiplying the number of classes by the average class size, 15.

State	College	Language	Estimated Nos.
Qld	Ithaca	Mandarin	30
	Ithaca	Cantonese	30
	Mackay	Cantonese	15
NSW	Sydney Tech	Mandarin	165
	Sydney Tech	Cantonese	150
	Randwick	Mandarin	30
	Randwick	Cantonese	30
	Meadowbank	Mandarin	60
	Meadowbank	Cantonese	60
	Wollongong	Cantonese	45
ACT	ACT TAFE	Mandarin	30
	ACT TAFE	Cantonese	60
Vic	Box Hill	Mandarin	30
	Box Hill	Cantonese	30
	Holmesglen	Mandarin	30
	Holmesglen	Cantonese	30
	RMIT-TAFE	Mandarin	30
	RMIT-TAFE	Cantonese	30
Tas	Burnie	Cantonese	15
SA	Adelaide	Mandarin	15
	Adelaide	Cantonese	15
WA	Central Met	Mandarin	60
	Central Met	Cantonese	90
Total			1050

Table 82
Estimated numbers of students enrolled in TAFE 1991-92

Baker and White also highlight a number of issues with respect to the teaching of LOTEs in the TAFE system that warrant further discussion. LOTEs are a low priority in the TAFE system. Only 92 of the 219 Collages in Australia offered LOTEs in 1990 (1991:93). Chinese language is taught in approximately 14 percent of these. Yet, Mountney and Poualion (1991:34) in a survey of the top 500 exporters noted that 26 percent of these companies dealt with Chinese-speaking countries. Forty-seven companies identified Japan as a country it dealt with. Hong Kong (42), Taiwan (42), Singapore (41) and the PRC (25) were all rated in the top ten countries this group of companies dealt with. Given the obvious vocational potential of Chinese language from these statements, TAFE should be encouraged to provide more Chinese courses. TAFE is well placed to integrate language into a more vocational framework. Industry does not only want translators, but it also

needs technical experts that are proficient in Chinese. Unfortunately, the general quality of language courses delivered at TAFE is very uneven.

TAFE courses lacked a definite structure and the approach taken to language provision is uncoordinated (Baker and White, 1991:95). This, it has been argued elsewhere in this report, is unsatisfactory for the delivery of quality Chinese language programs. Chinese language programs are best when they provide a course of intensive study with guaranteed continuity. Part of the problem lies in the contradiction between the way in which the Colleges decide on what courses to offer and the needs of quality language programs. Baker and White underline this contradiction when they say "Colleges traditionally respond to local demand and at the same time attempt to meet the requirements of state and national policies" (1991:94) For language provision to improve across the whole TAFE sector, colleges need to establish LOTE departments that incorporate the expertise of language professionals, so decision making can be made from informed language methodologies.

In addition, a large percentage of students study part-time and therefore have the added pressure of studying the language in their own time. Baker and White found that insufficient time for language study was the main reason student numbers dropped off in the language courses (1991:95)

Recommendation 19
The report recommends that TAFE systems encourage the establishment of LOTE departments within the colleges.

Teachers, according to Baker and White, work under discouraging conditions. Full-time teachers lack a career structure and are uncertain of their future. Recent restructuring and continued funding cuts have further undermined the teachers security. Part-time teachers also felt insecure about their future within the system (Baker and White, 1991:94). Recent initiatives undertaken by the Federal Government may well solve some of these difficulties. Many of the teachers complained of working in isolation and called for a greater sense of unity between the colleges.

In the past the TAFE sector has suffered because of the lack of cross accreditation between other like institutions, as well as the formal education sector. Government responses to the The Finn, Carmichael, and Mayers Committee Reports suggest that these difficulties may be at an end.

Baker and White (1991) also raise a number of other issues for the TAFE sector which are given in point form below.

- Teaching methodologies vary considerably,
- Materials for Chinese language teaching in the TAFE colleges were in the main generated by the teachers themselves,
- TAFE offers few distance education programs,
- Most students have a background in the LOTE they are studying, and
- There is no or little expertise in computer-aided learning (CALL) in the TAFE system.

TAFE has formalised a Japanese curriculum and is in the process of producing one for Chinese and this should provide a much needed boost to Chinese studies in the sector.

In conclusion, it seems that TAFE has made a considerable investment in personnel and resources for the LOTE sector. However, the lack of a structure that emphasises intensive language training and continuity, and the related fragmented approach to course offerings prevent the delivery of quality programs. The TAFE sector has much to offer, especially its ability to interact with business and its easy access for the general community, it would be a shame not to fulfil its great potential.

The general trends in a number of extension institutions and institutions for further learning are described briefly below.

Australian National University Extension Courses
Even though the number of students enrolled in languages are down, Chinese language numbers are steady.

Macquarie University Extension Program
The program offers day and night language programs of two hours per week. Both Modern Standard Chinese and Cantonese are offered at beginner levels. The numbers of students studying Cantonese in first semester have increased from 16 in 1989 to 24 in 1992. Over a similar period Modern Standard Chinese enrolments in first semester remained around 26. Enrolments for second semester have traditionally seen a drop-off in numbers. The program also offers Accelerated Beginners classes of three hours per week for one semester. The Modern Standard Chinese program had 17 students in 1989 and 16 students in 1992. It is unsure whether the course was not offered or there was simply no demand for the intervening years. Cantonese is not offered as this level.

Insearch Language Centre: University of Technology Sydney
The centre offers Modern Standard Chinese at a beginners level. In the past, it has offered usually three classes of 16 students for 10 weeks in each semester. In 1992, however, only one class was offered in second term. The centre found that to improve retention rates they had to reduce the amount of content in the program.

University of New South Wales, Institute of Languages
The Institute offers Modern Standard Chinese in its Modern Languages Department, within four streams, ranging from introductory to advanced. Each stream or level of study lasts approximately for one year (70-100 hours). The structure of courses identifies that some languages, including Chinese languages, require a greater length of time investment to achieve certain specific levels than some other languages. No entry test is required and students nominate their own preferred level of study. The changes in numbers enrolled in Modern Standard Chinese for the years 1985-92 are given in Table 83 below.

Numbers have remained fairly consistent over this period where Modern Standard Chinese has usually been the fifth or sixth favoured language out of 11 or 12 languages. The Institute attracts students from a variety of professions, but students from other courses, sales and marketing,

administration, teaching, and the medical professions were the most numerous. These courses have set aims in all macro-skills, with well developed syllabi for these type of courses, including useful rationales.

Modern Standard Chinese Enrolments	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
No of students	61	102	61	26	62	45	57	62
% of total student enrolments	8.0	9.7	5.4	1.9	5.6	4.5	4.3	7.2

Table 83
Enrolments at the Institute of Languages, Modern Languages Department

The Institute also offers a three-week summer intensive course in Modern Standard Chinese at introductory, elementary and intermediate levels with a choice of 37.5 ($320) or 24 hours ($205). These courses usually attract approximately 20 students per course. The Institute also offers the Australian Interpreting and Translating Test, the Modern Languages Proficiency Certificate Exams and Qantas Language Badge Testing. In the period 1985-1990 the Institute tested students in 43 languages, including 49 in Modern Standard Chinese, 16 in Hokkien and 48 in Cantonese.

The Institute also offers self-instructional packages for most languages.

Numbers of students studying Chinese have increased since their low point in 1988 and in 1992 were quite healthy. In 1992, 864 enrolments were recorded in 12 languages. Students of Modern Standard Chinese now make up 7.2 percent of the total number of language students and it is the sixth most popular language of a total of 12.

Griffith University
Numbers have increased in the university's extension programs. In 1992 a total of 30 students were enrolled in two classes.

Institute of Modern Languages: The University of Queensland
The Institute offers a comprehensive program of Chinese languages. Cantonese is offered at three levels: elementary, intermediate and advanced. The language was introduced in 1989, and numbers have remained fairly constant for the beginner levels, at around 25. In 1991, 10 students were enrolled in the intermediate level and 6 in the advanced level. Modern Standard Chinese is offered at four levels: elementary, intermediate, intermediate-upper and advanced. Over the 10 years to 1991, the numbers of enrolments at beginner level had increased by 142 percent, to 83, with highs in 1989 and 1990 of 99 and 120 respectively. Numbers were also reasonable at the other levels. In 1991, the number of students studying Chinese represented six percent of the total number of students at the institute.

Adelaide University Continued Education
The continued education program offers Modern Standard Chinese at two levels.

James Cook Institute of Modern Languages
The institute offers courses in elementary and intermediate Modern Standard Chinese.

La Trobe University Extension Course
Chinese although popular three years ago, has declined in numbers. In 1992, two classes were offered at level 1 and one class at level 2, with an approximate total of 25.

University of Western Australia Extension Program
The program offers beginner classes of 1.5 hours per week over 10 weeks

Hunter Workers Education Association College
The college offers a 15 week course in Chinese (was not specified which) language at a cost of $100.

College of Advanced Education: Melbourne
Numbers have declined over recent year. In 1992, only two beginners classes were offered. They suggested that the calibre of teachers and needs of business as the most important factors affecting numbers.

7.0 Ethnic Schools

By 1913, three Chinese schools were well established in Australia, one in Melbourne and two in Sydney (Chin 1988:321). Over the next 20 years the numbers of schools increased rapidly. The schools enabled Australian-born Chinese children to receive a Chinese education, especially in spoken Chinese and to learn Chinese characters. These schools, though were generally short-lived, usually failing because of the lack of qualified teaching staff or lack of support from the wealthy Chinese merchant families (Chin 1988:322). By the end of the 1930s the numbers of schools had diminished greatly.

In the post-war period Australia absorbed many new immigrants from the European countries. The diversity of languages and the numbers speaking those languages greatly increased. These increases were proportionally reflected in the numbers of new ethnic schools being established. These ethnic schools developed through the initiatives of members of the particular community, providing their own resources, teaching staff and classrooms. Another wave of change in the immigration profile occurred in the 1970s, when larger percentages of Asian migrants arrived in Australia. Correspondingly, the language profile of the ethnic schools changed again, with the inclusion of languages such as Vietnamese, Khmer and Lao and the increase in Modern Standard Chinese and especially Cantonese.

As the Chinese population grew again in the 1970s, there were renewed efforts to re-establish these schools. By the 1980s Chinese schools had been established in all major population centres, predominantly teaching Modern Standard Chinese or Cantonese. In 1985, for example there were 14 major schools operating in Sydney alone. Most of these schools offered classes on the weekend, offering calligraphy, folk songs and dances and Chinese morals as well as language classes. Many of the teachers in these schools were trained in their countries of origin (Chin 1988:322).

The primary aim of the ethnic and Saturday schools has been to maintain and develop the languages and cultures of Australia's ethnic communities. They are non-profit, after-hours language and culture schools, organised by particular community groups or enthusiastic individuals. Commonwealth funding regulations require that they be open to all students irrespective of their ethnic or political backgrounds, gender or religion. Ethnic schools complement the mainstream education system in a number of ways. They provide a broader range of languages than the formal school system. Given the recent emphasis, in language education policy, on the prioritising of languages for political and economic reasons, this provision of a broad range of languages is an important element of a multicultural Australia. Secondly, they offer a high degree of authenticity since the language is taught in its proper socio-cultural context. Learners are generally required to perform nearly all tasks in the target language. Mainstream schools, on the other hand, are forced to offer their language courses as second language programs.

The report, *Future Directions for Ethnic Schools in South Australia*, prepared by the Non-Government Schools Secretariat of South Australia, describes the ethnic school system as a "cost efficient alternative mode of

offering languages and culture programs not only to mother tongue learners but also second language learners" (1988:3).

The Commonwealth Government, after persistent pressure from ethnic communities, began funding the schools through its Ethnic Schools Program in 1981 with a per capita grant of $30 for each school age child attending an ethnic school. The current (1992) level of funding remains at the 1986 level of $36 per child and schools established since 1986 are not eligible for any funding at all. The numbers of students funded by DEET under this procedure is shown in Table 84. In 1991, although the Federal Government still funded the Ethnic School Program, its administration was handed over to the individual States.

Surveys were mailed to eighty-four Ethnic schools in all States. The questionnaires specifically targeted data on numbers of students (studying Modern Standard Chinese and Cantonese), numbers of teachers and their qualifications/experience, funding, aims and resources. The response rate was very poor, with only 21 (25 percent) schools responding to the questionnaire. It would have been useful to provide State profiles of the programs and align them with the changing patterns of settlement by the Chinese arriving in Australia. The poor response and the lack of consistency between the small number received, prevent anything more than number of general comments being made. The views based on this data, therefore, remain tentative.

Of those schools that responded, most taught Modern Standard Chinese. The number of students enrolled in Modern Standard Chinese classes made up over 85 percent of the total number of students in these schools. Fourteen of the schools taught Modern standard Chinese exclusively, two offered classes in both languages, while only five offered Cantonese alone. Where schools had been in existence since 1987, numbers of students in Modern Standard Chinese classes had increased by 25 percent. Our figures also showed that numbers enrolled in Cantonese classes increased by 83 percent. These figures are somewhat misleading in that most of this increase occurred in one school (46-190 students), while two of the other four schools actually had decreases in numbers. As well, from the schools that responded, Cantonese was the only language discontinued (two schools) over the period 1987-92.

Although there was no specific question on the ethnicity of the students, the survey did query the first language of the students. Twenty-two percent of the students spoke Modern Standard Chinese as their first language, 23 percent spoke Cantonese, 45 percent spoke English and 10 percent used other languages. It is interesting to note, however, the large numbers of Cantonese speakers learning Modern Standard Chinese. It would be expected that many of the students with a first language of English would also be from previously Cantonese speaking families, so it seems the Chinese community does place some cultural emphasis on the teaching of Modern Standard Chinese, even if it is not the community's first language. To what degree, this is true however, is difficult to ascertain, given the small sample discussed here.

The survey showed that teachers at ethnic schools possessed a wide range of experiences and qualifications. There was, however, a large percentage (50 percent) who had formal teaching qualifications. Ninety-three percent (41)

of these teachers received their qualifications overseas, while only seven percent received them in Australia. Thirty-six percent of the total number of teachers had no formal teaching qualifications at all, although many of these teachers were tertiary-trained in some other discipline. The qualifications of the remaining 12 percent were not described. The schools, almost without exception, offered 2-3 hours per week for 35-40 weeks per year, at, at least two levels.

NSW	Vic	Qld	WA	SA	Tas	NT	ACT	Total
4,483	3,322	304	631	609	15	116	74	9,554

Table 84

Number of students studying Chinese in ethnic schools funded by DEET-1991

The figures in Table 84 describe only those places that are funded by DEET. These figures vastly underestimate the numbers of students that are actually attending the schools. Because the response to the survey was so poor, it is difficult to calculate the total numbers exactly. A good example of how the figures under-represent the total, is revealed when they are compared with the figures supplied by the New South Wales Education Department. The Department's figures state that there were 6365 students of Modern Standard Chinese and Cantonese in New South Wales ethnic schools in 1991. This represents an increase of 42 percent over the DEET figures. Assuming this percentage is consistent across all states this would give a total of between 13,000 and 14,000 students studying in the Chinese-language ethnic schools.

Seventeen of the 21 schools reported moderate or little difficulty in finding suitable resources for their teaching programs. Yet the same schools, in the section on current difficulties the school is encountering, highlighted the lack of suitable teaching materials as the biggest single problem. The survey also revealed a number of other major difficulties. A large number of schools complained of the difficulties in acquiring classroom space for their classes, especially from the formal day-schools. This problem was discussed in-depth in the report of the Ethnic Schools Advisory Committee mentioned above. Their report recommended that

> ethnic school authorities be exempted from hiring charges that may apply for the use of Government school premises but they may contribute to such recurrent costs as electricity and cleaning at a rate commensurate to the time they have access to the host school's premises (Recommendation 49, 1989:80)

Recommendation 20

The report recommends that state education bodies support recommendation 49 of the Future Directions for Ethnic Schools in South Australia *and implement guidelines that will ensure access to government school classrooms for the ethnic schools.*

Funding is also a major problem for the ethnic schools. The Federal Government's decision to cap funding levels at 1986 numbers has placed considerable financial pressures on the schools. These difficulties affect the ability of the schools to supply qualified teaching staff and suitable resources-including textbooks and audio-visual equipment. Most schools supplemented their grants from the Federal Government, with State grants, student-fees and donations.

The administration of the ethnic schools is also becoming a major problem for the schools. Most of this administration is carried out on a voluntary basis, and it is becoming increasingly difficult for the volunteers to meet these increased demands.

The project interviewed two school administrators. They both stated that the most important issue for the ethnic schools, at the moment, was an increased degree of recognition for the ethnic schools activities within the general community. This would be best achieved through the greater community acceptance of the schools teaching functions. They argued that the attendance and achievements of the students of ethnic schools should be acknowledged through the reporting system of mainstream schools. Recommendation 2 of the report *Future Directions for Ethnic Schools in South Australia* also strongly recommended this action. The school administrators believed that this would invigorate the sector by providing the students with the external motivation to further their skills in the target language. They argued that the necessary registration of ethnic school authorities and their teachers would flow from this action and would eventually lead to an increase in the general quality of the delivery of language programs.

This "mainstreaming" of the ethnic schools, as the ALLP refers to it, would possibly solve a number of the problems outlined above. It is, on the other hand, not without potential negative effects. Ingram suggests that

> the "mainstreaming" of the Ethnic Schools Program could lead to a substantial increase in the quality of the program but it could also lead to the phasing out of the non-systemic Ethnic Schools Program or, at least, and contrary to the Paper's [ALLP] stated intention, to the narrowing of the range of languages available through it. (1991:3)

While it is generally acknowledged that the registration of the ethnic school authorities and their teachers would be a positive step towards increasing quality, the necessary research should be done to provide appropriate implementation guidelines so as not to lose any of the positive features of this significant deliverer of language education.

Recommendation 21

The report recommends that DEET fund an investigation into the best possible methods to integrate the ethnic schools more closely into the formal education system.

8.0 Language in Australian Society

Giles et al (1977) argued that the "vitality" of ethnolinguistic groups could be assessed by monitoring three categories of structural variables: namely, status, demography and institutional support. Although a number of writers have noted the limited value of this model in the Australian context (for example, see Clyne 1991:89, and Hunter and Khan 1988:193-96), it does provide a workable foundation for the general analysis of Chinese as a community language in Australia. According to Clyne (1991:88-89), these variables are made up of a complex number of interrelated components: economic status, self-perceived social status, socio-historical factors such as historically acquired ability to cope with minority status, the status of the language, and demographic aspects such as numbers, group distribution and boundaries, and institutional support. The report will therefore look at a number of these variables so as to ascertain the vitality and to describe some of the problems facing Chinese as a community language in Australia.

8.1 Socio-historical Conditions of Chinese as a Community Language

Chinese language has a long history of community use in Australia. It is however a history that has been characterised, until recently, by attitudes that have reflected Australia's Eurocentric vision. The peoples of China, their culture and their language have been seen as exotic - always in terms of the 'other' - and their subsequent study, only the realm of professors in obscure university departments. The genealogy of the Chinese in Australia is therefore important in that it reveals a number of factors that have determined Australian attitudes to the Chinese and may explain the hesitancy with which Australian education institutions have taken up the world's most spoken group of languages. These attitudes may also have a positive effect in that isolating the Chinese has meant that they have clung more strongly to their Chinese "core values". Smolicz (discussed in Clyne 1991:91), claims the Chinese maintain their language in a minority situation well because language is a more crucial core value than it is with other ethnic groups.

Suggestions of importing Chinese labourers into Australia can be found in the literature as early as 1783. The first official recorded settlement of Chinese in Australia however, was not until 1827, when a small group arrived as indentured labourers (Wang 1988:299). By 1848, according to available information, only 18 Chinese had settled in Australia, working as labourers, domestic servants and artisans. Between 1848 and 1851 this number had increased to 1742.

The discovery of gold in Victoria and New South Wales in combination with the political and economic crises occurring in China at that time, prompted the first major wave of Chinese migrants to Australia. According to the census of 1861, 38, 348 Chinese (3.3 percent of the total Australian population) had settled in Australia. This number did not vary greatly through the next three censuses, although, as Australia's population swelled due to the lure of possible wealth on the goldfields, the proportion

of Chinese in the total Australian population decreased to 1.1 percent by 1891.

There is little doubt that, like the migrants from other countries, the Chinese came searching for new found wealth. In 1861, 24,544 of the total population of 24,732 Chinese residents in Victoria were to be found on the goldfields. In the same year, 11,838 out of a total 12,988 resident in New South Wales were working the goldfields in that state (Wang 1988:304). The majority of these Chinese migrants came from the provinces of Guangdong and Fujian, and spoke the languages of those areas - predominantly Cantonese and Hokkien. The Chinese were, almost without exception, uneducated, lacking knowledge of the English language and unfamiliar with Western culture.

It was generally acknowledged that the Chinese were "peaceful, loyal, honest, sober, patient, kind and loyal to their masters, and had a reputation for learning quickly and imitating cleverly" (Wang 1988:300). Unfortunately, as the wealth-creating potential of the goldfields dwindled, competition for employment became a major issue. As Australia moved into depression in the 1890s, this perception changed.

Although the Chinese had always been seen as outsiders, these economic factors now emphasised those differences to a greater degree. The Chinese immigrants differed from the other diggers in manner, colour, language, customs and methods of working. In addition, very few Chinese women came or were allowed entry into Australia and the men were seen as threats to Australian women. The Chinese also brought with them a number of habits including the smoking of opium and gambling that were viewed as offensive to the general welfare of the Australian community.

Anti-Chinese agitation flared on numerous occasions both on the goldfields and in the cities as ships docked to land the Chinese immigrants. Riots against the Chinese occurred at many fields between 1860 and 1890, including Lambing Flat and Buckland River. In 1988, the Chinese aboard the *Aphgan* were not allowed to disembark, because the papers held by the Chinese passengers were held to be fraudulent by the Victorian and New South Wales governments.

In response to the agitation, State governments introduced a number of Acts that discriminated against Chinese immigration. The first discriminatory Act was put in place by the Victorian government in 1857. *The Act to Regulate the Chinese Population of Victoria*, 1851- 1859, introduced a poll tax of ten pounds on each Chinese. In Queensland, the government introduced the *Chinese Immigration Regulation Act*, imposing similar restrictions in 1877.

As the goldfields became exhausted, large numbers of Chinese moved successfully into a variety of occupations, including market gardening, laundry shops, retailing and furniture production. This success in furniture production was again met with government legislature. The New South Wales and Victorian governments enacted the *Factories and Shops Act*, 1896, which meant that all Chinese-made furniture had to be stamped with the words "Chinese Labour". The Chinese were seen as taking jobs away from

Australian workers and ill-feeling towards them existed at all levels, from the labour movement to the highest level of government.

The Immigration Restriction Act, 1901, was put in place solely to deter non-European immigration. Authorities used a dictation test to provide an obstacle to Chinese as well as other Asian and African immigration. As the Chinese were generally uneducated and could not speak English, let alone 50 words in any European language selected at the whim of the examiners, which was the basis of this test.

The Chinese-born population of Australia declined rapidly after the Act was enforced, from 29,900 in 1901 to 6,400 in 1947 (Yuan 1988:304). The Chinese in Australia did make a number of futile attempts to combat the explicit racism of the Act. Samual Wong summarised the feelings of many Chinese when he said in 1942: "We are told that the people of Asia are good enough to ... enjoy eternal life with Christ and all just men, but not good enough to live a short life on the Australian continent with Messrs Chifley, Menzies, Calwell, Fadden and their followers ..." Although Chinese culture, language and organisations were maintained, there was also a dilution of Chinese identity through mixed marriages and the adoption of Western traditions (Yuan 1988:307).

The "otherness" of the Chinese people was consolidated in the eyes of the Australian community with the success of the Chinese Communist Party in winning control over their country in 1949. There had always been a fear of the "yellow peril", predominantly for their threat to employment opportunities, racial purity and the moral fibre of the community. Now the rationale for this fear could be described in terms of ideology and the oppression by the state of the individual. This further distanced the local community from having any general academic interest in the country.

The years 1957-59 saw the first arrival of increased numbers of Chinese women and by 1968 the imbalance had all but disappeared. Yet another feature of the post-war Chinese population was the widening gap between the numbers of Australian-born and foreign-born Chinese. While in 1911 there were only 1,456 Australian born (approximately 6 percent of the Chinese population), by 1947, 3,728 (40 percent) were Australian-born. With the influx of Chinese, coming from a variety of Asian countries after the war, the percentage of Australian-born rapidly declined. By 1966 they represented only 25 percent of the total Chinese population resident in Australia (Chin 1988:318).

Throughout the years when the "White Australia" policy dominated immigration policy, Chinese in Australia still maintained networks via organisations like the Guomindang, Chambers of Commerce and the Masonic Society.

In March 1966, the Department of Immigration admitted non-Europeans as permanent settlers for the first time and allowed resident non-Europeans to have the same rights as Europeans in matters of naturalisation and registration. The Labor government of 1973 adopted a non-discriminatory immigration policy, thereby making it even easier for non-European people to enter.

Perhaps the most salient feature of postwar Chinese immigration has been its heterogeneity. While pre-war immigration figures had been almost totally dominated by those from Cantonese and some Hokkien speaking areas, the language profile of those arriving after the war was much more diverse. The 1970s saw arrivals from Singapore, the northern regions of the PRC, Papua New Guinea, Timor, Hong Kong, Indo-China and Malaysia. While many of the Chinese from Vietnam are from Cantonese backgrounds, a large number are speakers of Hokkien/Teochiu, those from Cambodia usually speak Teochiu, and those from Malaysia and Singapore are also likely to be speakers of Hokkien/Teochiu. Likewise many of the recent arrivals from Taiwan speak Hokkien/Teochiu as a first language, and Modern Standard Chinese as their second, while others have Modern Standard Chinese as their first language.

During the 1980s, large numbers of speakers of Modern Standard Chinese came to Australia as visa students to study at educational institutions. After the tragedy in and around Tiananmen Square in June 1989, the then Prime Minister, Bob Hawke, granted an extended stay for the estimated 30,000 Chinese students in Australia at that time. It is expected that most of these students will eventually gain permanent residency.

There is a very active network of 33 major Chinese clubs and associations throughout Australia. There are also a large number of smaller, local organisations

There is very little information in the literature on the dynamic aspects of Chinese language in Australian Community. Although Clyne (1991) provides an excellent foundation for the study of language maintenance, loss and attrition, he predominantly discusses European languages and Chinese is not treated in any depth. Given the nature of Chinese, especially with its tones and character script, there is a need to research the more specific issues that are relevant to Chinese language use and language shift among those resident Chinese groups in Australia.

8.2 Patterns of Concentration

During their history of migration to Australia, the Chinese have preferred to settle in the Eastern states, particularly Victoria and New South Wales, By 1966, over 87 percent of Australia's Chinese lived in Queensland, New South Wales and Victoria. Approximately 97 percent lived in capital cities and other urban areas (Chin, 1988:318).

The 1981 census noted that 89 percent of PRC-born, 71 percent Malaysia-born, 61 percent of Singapore-born, 81 percent of Vietnam-born, and 86 percent of Hong Kong-born were to be found in these three eastern states (Chin 1988:319). The Hong Kong born and the PRC born Chinese congregated heavily in New South Wales and Victoria especially Sydney and Melbourne, where they were residents, patrons and business people in local Chinatowns. The Chinese have generally followed the Australian pattern of suburbanisation. In 1947 for example, 2,165 of 3,300 Chinese in metropolitan Sydney were to be found residing in the Central Sector and inner city, in contrast to 1,135 in middle and outer suburbs. By 1966 this trend

had been reversed, with 6,588 living in the latter areas as against 3,353 in the former. The pattern was the same for Melbourne (Chin, 1988.319).

8.3 The Media

The SBS is an independent statutory body established under the *Broadcasting and Television Act* 1942 (now *The Broadcasting Act* 1942) on 1 January 1978. Its function is to provide multilingual broadcasting services. In carrying out this function, SBS offers the following services:

- multilingual radio services to Sydney (2EA) Newcastle and Wollongong (2EA translators), Melbourne/Geelong 3EA, Brisbane (2EA relays for 19 hours per week on 4EB); and
- a multicultural television service to all state capital cities, and to a number of regional areas.

In 1985-86, the radio stations 2EA and 3EA provided 208 hours (four programs per week) and 52 hours (two programs per week) respectively of Chinese language programs. A breakdown of programs by Chinese language is not available. In the same period, SBS TV provided 48.47 hours of Modern Standard Chinese and 34.29 hours of Cantonese programs. These figures represented 1.52 and 1.08 percent of the total program time (SBS Annual Report 1985-86).

The 1990-91 Annual report revealed that the amount of program time for Chinese languages on radio had not changed, but that for SBS TV it had decreased to 29.83 hours for Modern Standard Chinese and 29.24 for Cantonese. These figures represented 0.78 and 0.76 percent of the total program time (*SBS Annual Report* 1990-91, Appendices). In the period 1985-86 to 1990-91 the total number of broadcast hours increased from 3185.26 to 3839.78.

This reduction in the number of hours may be explained by difficulty in acquiring large numbers of Chinese language programs. However, it does not reflect the current upsurge in the numbers of both Cantonese and Modern Standard Chinese speakers who are now resident in Australia.

Radio 4EB in Brisbane puts to air an hour of Modern Standard Chinese and 45 minutes of Cantonese per week.

Chinese language is well represented in the printed media. The following newspapers in 1991 had a combined circulation of 58,500. There were three national papers and and a number were exported to overseas destinations. Information on their individual circulations, frequencies and locations is detailed below.

Australia-China Review

Circulation:	2,500
Frequency:	Quarterly, Feb, May, Aug, Nov
Distribution:	National
Address:	North Carlton, Vic.

Australian Chinese Community Association
Circulation: 3,500
Frequency: Bimonthly
Distribution: NSW
Address: Surry Hills NSW

Australian Chinese Daily
Circulation: 18,000
Frequency: Monday-Saturday
Distribution: National
Address: Haymarket, NSW

Brisbane Chinese Community News
Circulation: 5,000
Frequency: Monthly
Distribution: Qld, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Singapore
Address: Browns Plains Qld

Chinese Herald
Circulation: Weekly
Frequency: 18,000
Distribution: National
Address: Haymarket, NSW

Chinese Migrant Bulletin
Circulation: 10,000
Frequency: Monthly
Distribution: Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane and Overseas
Address: Haymarket, NSW

Qiao Sheng News (published by the China Youth League)
Circulation: 1,500
Frequency: Monthly
Distribution: National
Address: Haymarket, NSW

Xing Dao
Circulation: NDA
Frequency: NDA
Distribution: NDA
Address: Sydney, NSW
(Source: Ethnic Press: Media People, June 1991 edition.)

8.4 Current Numbers and Distribution of Chinese Speakers in Australia

There are a number of difficulties in constructing an accurate profile of Modern Standard Chinese usage in Australia. Firstly, the 1990 census data was not available when the report was being written and consequently the profile will be based on the 1986 census. Since that time, however, the characteristics of Australia's immigration have changed considerably and much of that data is now out of date. Secondly, the census data has been

coded in such a way to indicate country of birth and country of last residence, rather than language or dialect spoken. If a respondent replied to the question *Which language is used at home* with a particular Chinese language - for example, Cantonese - it was simply coded under the umbrella term "Chinese language". Given the complex and diverse language backgrounds (discussed in Section 8.1 of this report) of Australia's Chinese immigrants, it is impossible to provide an accurate picture of Modern Standard Chinese usage without more specific data. In addition the census data underestimates the numbers of ethnic speakers by ignoring persons under five years of age in its data collection and coding only one response to the census question on language spoken at home other than English. For example, in a linguistically mixed marriage, only the first language entered would be coded and this may not be one partner's first language. The 1976 census data showed that over eight percent of Australians speak two or more languages in their daily life. The census data therefore systematically underestimates the number of Chinese speakers in Australia.

With respect to the first difficulty we have updated the 1986 data with the most current data from the Bureau of Immigration Research. The 1986 census data and the BIR update are summarised in Tables 85 and 86.

	China	Taiwan	Singapore	Hong Kong	Macau	Malaysia
86/87	2690	804	1527	3398	94	3941
87/88	3282	1146	2077	5577	343	6265
88/89	3819	2100	1946	7307	176	7687
89/90	3061	3055	1567	8054	205	6417
90/91	3256	3491	1275	13541	256	5744
Total	16108	10596	8392	37877	1074	30054
1986 Census	37468	2061	16422	28287	n/a	47815
Total 1991 Aust.	53576	12657	24814	66164	n/a	77869

Table 85
Total Chinese language immigration by country of origin
Source: BIR: Settler Arrival by Region Country/ Country of Birth by Sex State of Intended Residence

Secondly, we will use the birthplace data after modification as a surrogate for language data. It needs to be modified because birthplace is often not a good indicator of ethnicity. As well minority groups are usually more strongly represented in the composition of emigrants from a country than they are of that country's total population.

Coughlan (1989) provides an excellent summary of the ethnicity and language profile of the Asian-Australians resident here. He found that, according to the 1986 census, that 139,100 people resident in Australia spoke a Chinese language at home (1989:30). This represented 0.965 percent of the total languages spoken in Australia. He found that 9.3 percent of these Chinese speakers were born in Australia. Couglan also summarises the data on the claimed ancestry of the Asian-born immigrants. From this we can estimate the number of Chinese speakers from the five target countries to be between 170,000 and 220,000.

State	Year	China	Taiwan	Singapore	Hong Kong	Macau	Malaysia
NSW	1986	20737	843	4922	15953		14400
	1991	29349	5142	7020	36899	462	22740
	% increase	41	510	43	131		58
Vic	1986	8600	600	3233	6362		14661
	1991	12639	2406	5507	15551	(268)	24835
	% increase	47	301	70	144		69
Qld	1986	3535	237	1817	2332		4318
	1991	5044	3785	2520	6680	(72)	5922
	% increase	43	1497	39	186		37
SA	1986	1700	89	880	832		3056
	1991	2356	386	1164	1918	(15)	4469
	% increase	39	334	32	130		46
WA	1986	1544	111	4723	1734		8738
	1991	2461	631	7503	3194	(37)	16332
	% increase	59	468	59	84		87
Tas	1986	320	30	160	227		613
	1991	464	69	200	349	(3)	712
	% increase	45	130	25	54		16
NT	1986	250	40	242	200		594
	1991	371	74	369	535	(5)	958
	% increase	48	85	52	167		61
ACT	1986	729	71	457	654		1423
	1991	926	125	535	1033	(6)	1764
	% increase	27	76	17	58		24

Table 86
Chinese speaking populations by State
(1986 census + intended state of residence of migrants since 1986)
Source: BIR: Settler Arrival by Region Country/ Country of Birth by Sex State of Intended Residence

By the end of 1992, it is expected that Hong Kong will become Australia's largest single source of migrants. In the period from 1986 to December 1991, the number of migrants from Hong Kong rose 37,877 from 28,287 to 66,164. In the 1991 October quarter, Hong Kong migrants made up 11.4 percent of the total migrant intake. The majority of these migrants, if they chose to follow the pattern of earlier migrants from Hong Kong described in the 1986 Census, chose to live close to commerce in New South Wales, Victoria and Queensland. These states have now received over 89 percent of the total intake from Hong Kong. Table 87 estimates the percentages of the total Chinese immigration that are residing or intended to reside in each Australian State, for each of the five countries.

The most significant quantitative change since 1986 has been the rapid increase in the numbers of migrants from Taiwan. Numbers in the period from 1986 to 1991 had increased by 514 percent. Queensland received the largest increase, with a massive increase of 1,500 percent in its 1991 figures over 1986. Again New South Wales, Victoria and Queensland dominated the preferences for the state of intended stay, with 40.6, 19.0 and 29.5 percent of the total number of Taiwanese immigrants respectively.

State	Year	China	Taiwan	Singapore	Hong Kong	Malaysia
NSW	1986	55.3	40.9	30.0	56.4	30.1
	1991	54.8	40.6	28.3	56.0	29.2
Vic	1986	22.9	29.1	19.7	22.5	30.7
	1991	23.6	19.0	22.2	23.5	31.9
Qld	1986	9.4	11.5	11.1	8.2	9.0
	1991	9.4	29.5	10.2	10.1	7.6
SA	1986	4.5	4.3	5.4	2.9	6.4
	1991	4.4	3.0	4.7	2.9	5.7
WA	1986	4.1	5.4	28.8	6.1	18.3
	1991	4.6	5.0	30.2	4.8	21.0
Tas	1986	0.9	1.5	1.0	0.8	1.2
	1991	0.9	0.5	0.8	0.5	0.9
NT	1986	0.7	1.9	1.5	0.7	1.2
	1991	0.7	0.6	1.5	0.8	1.2
ACT	1986	1.9	3.4	2.8	2.3	3.0
	1991	1.7	1.0	2.2	1.6	2.3

Table 87
Percentage of Total Immigration by Country of Origin and state of Intended Residence.

Projected Immigration Trends

International migration patterns are determined by an array of factors that are in themselves difficult to analyse. To make predictions about future immigration patterns is a perilous task. Domestic policies as well as political struggle and economic hardship in regions that may provide refugees are difficult to predict. There are, however, a number of features that will affect the number of Chinese that may enter in the future. Immigration from Hong Kong is expected to remain high until 1997. These migrants, almost without exception will be Cantonese speakers and from the middle or upper classes. The business immigration scheme, which brought many Chinese speakers especially from Taiwan and Hong Kong, ended in mid-1992 and this will see a reduction in the number of this type of immigrant. Australia, though, remains a favoured destination for many of the Chinese and through structures like the Family Reunion Scheme numbers are expected to remain high.

9.0 Language in the World Context

9.1 Estimated Size of World Population Speaking Modern Standard Chinese

There are also a number of difficulties in arriving at an accurate number for the L1, L2 and L3 world populations speaking Modern Standard Chinese. The situation within China itself is exceedingly complex. China is the most populous nation in the world containing 1,160,017,381 people (according to the 1990 census cited in the *Beijing Review*). Its multiethnic and multicultural society stretches over 9,561,000 km^2 and the divergence of China's languages is well documented. Within communities, given this divergence, individuals often come in contact with a number of Chinese dialects each day. Most city inhabitants are at least bilingual and often trilingual. Inter-marriage between different dialect groups is common and inter-provincial travel much more common than it has been in the past. In addition, because of the enormity of the task of analysing this complex situation no comprehensive study has ever been undertaken and hence the amount of information in the literature is limited. Secondly, Chinese have in the past been great migrators. There are few countries especially on the Pacific Rim, that have not received Chinese immigrants at some time or other. Traditionally these migrants have come from the Southeastern Provinces of Guangdong and Fujian speaking mainly Cantonese, Hokkien or Hakka as their first language. There are now significant populations of ethnic Chinese in Malaysia, Indonesia, Vietnam, the Philippines, Burma, Australia, Singapore, Canada, the United States of America and Cambodia. Table 88 summarises the number of Chinese speakers in world countries other than those focused on in this report. The language profiles of these large overseas Chinese populations are complex and vary from country to country. It would however be safe to say that all but a very small percentage would speak a non-Modern Standard Chinese dialect as their first language.

Modern Standard Chinese is the *lingua franca* of the PRC and Taiwan and has been appropriated as the language of educated Chinese in many of the other parts of Asia and the world. Families, although their first language may not be Modern Standard Chinese, often want their children to preserve their Chinese heritage through the learning of Modern Standard Chinese. Therefore large numbers of overseas Chinese retain Modern Standard Chinese as an additional language (L2 or L3).

Given this complex situation, both in the PRC and Taiwan, and in terms of the overseas populations - especially in terms of the distribution of languages and dialects and the specific development of second and third languages - a detailed breakdown of the numbers and an account of the dynamics mentioned above is beyond the scope of this report.

Rather we will use the methods outlined in the (1987) *The Language Atlas of China* to estimate the total first language Modern Standard Chinese speakers. *The Language Atlas of China* calculates this figure by assuming that the Han populations of the provinces, autonomous regions and cities of Xinjiang, Gansu, southern Shaanxi, Henan, Guizhou, Sichuan, Yunan, Hubei,

Anhui, Shandong, Hebei, Liaoning, Heilongjian, Jilin, Beijing and Tianjin all speak Modern Standard Chinese as their first language. On 1990 census data this represents approximately 760,000,000 people. First language speakers outside these areas would not constitute a significant increase in this number. However, assuming that all ethnic Chinese from the PRC, the Taiwan, Hong Kong and Singapore who do not speak Modern Standard Chinese as a first language would speak it as L2 or L3, we can estimate the combined L2 and L3 to be in the order of 260 million. The combined L1, L2, L3 figures (approx. 1 billion) represents between one-fifth and one-quarter of the world's total population. The United Nations itself recognises the enormous importance of these numbers in making Modern Standard Chinese an official language within its organisation.

It is important to note that the standard of fluency of second and third language speakers of Modern Standard Chinese would vary considerably among individuals, especially, for example, between second language speakers in Singapore and in Australia, where there may be different levels of daily language usage.

We will now look at the individual country linguistic profiles in more detail.

9.1.1 The People's Republic of China and the Republic of China

Given the enormous size and population of the PRC and the historical impediments to efficient communication within that country, one could hardly expect to find linguistic unity. It seems however that what linguistic uniformity there is throughout the Chinese population has been under-emphasised. *The Language Atlas of China* (1987) estimates that there are approximately 662.23 million speakers in the Modern Standard Chinese supergroup in PRC and Taiwan. This supergroup consists of nine dialect groups which display a high degree of inter-dialect intelligibility. Speakers of these various dialects can communicate readily among themselves with little need for modification to accommodate the listeners. These figures represented at that time 67.76 percent of all Chinese speakers in China and Taiwan and 64.51 percent of the total population.

Language Group	Millions of speakers
Northeastern Mandarin Group	82.00
Zhongyuan Mandarin Group	160.41
Beijing Mandarin Group	18.02
Lanyin Mandarin Group	11.73
Beifang Mandarin Group	83.63
Southwestern Mandarin Group	200.00
Jiaoliao Mandarin Group	28.83
Jinghuai Mandarin Group	67.25
Mandarin (not yet grouped)	1.36
Total	662.23

Table 88
Mandarin Supergroup and estimated numbers of speakers

Using The Language Atlas of China 's percentages on the 1990 census data, it is estimated that there are now approximately 760 million first language speakers of Modern Standard Chinese in the PRC and Taiwan. It can be

assumed that the rest of the Han population, approximately 220 million, would speak Modern Standard Chinese as their second or third language.

9.1.2 Republic of Singapore

The Republic of Singapore is a multilingual society with a rich cultural heritage. In 1989 it had a population of 2.69 million Chinese (75.9 percent), 408,800 Malays (15.2 percent), 174,300 Indians (6.5 percent) and 64,300 others (2.4 percent) (*Singapore 1990*). The official languages are Malay, Chinese, Tamil and English. Malay is the national language, while English is the language of administration and much of the commerce. The main Chinese dialects traditionally spoken are Hokkien, Teochew, Cantonese, Hakka, Hainanese and Foochow. In 1979 the government introduced a comprehensive plan to replace this diverse range of dialects with Modern Standard Chinese. Modern Standard Chinese is now taught extensively in schools and is increasingly becoming an important business language. The ability to speak Modern Standard Chinese by Chinese government officials who deal with the public rose from 72 percent in 1979 to 85 percent in 1985. Surveys of markets and food centres noted that Modern Standard Chinese usage had increased from 1.2 percent to 22 percent over the same period (*A Decade of Modern Standard Chinese* 1991:24). Government policy states that 27 percent of a student's curriculum must be in their so-called mother-tongue - Modern Standard Chinese for Chinese, Malay for Malays, and Tamil for Indians (Branegan 1991:83). A recent survey of Chinese children in their first year at elementary school showed that the language they most frequently used (69.1 percent) was Modern Standard Chinese (AsiaWeek Oct.27, 1989). Although this figure may be exaggerated - because of the children's eagerness to do what they thought was expected - it corresponds with a significant and rapid decline of other dialects such as Cantonese, Hokkien and Teochew. In 1980, 64.4 percent used a non-Modern Standard Chinese dialect as first choice. In 1989 it had declined to 7.2 percent (*A Decade of Modern Standard Chinese*, 1991:23) During the same period, English rose from 9.3 percent to 23.3 percent among six year-olds. Although the number of Modern Standard Chinese first language speakers is low (under 5 percent) it is estimated that nearly all ethnic Chinese now speak it at a communicative level as a L2 or L3. This would mean there are now an estimated 2.75 million L2 and L3 speakers of Modern Standard Chinese in Singapore.

9.1.3 Hong Kong and Macau

In contrast to the Singapore government's active intervention, the government of Hong Kong has remained passive with respect to language policy and has let the rich mixture of languages develop on an ad hoc basis. Jay Branegan suggests that the result has not been a successful bilingual community, but rather one where many students are not very good at either Cantonese or English (1991:82). The most popularly spoken language is Cantonese, but English, other Chinese languages and Tamil are also spoken by large numbers of Hong Kong's residents. The number of people speaking Modern Standard Chinese as their first language is very small, however, nearly all of the Chinese would have a strong knowledge of the language, although it would be difficult to ascertain their proficiencies. Modern

Standard Chinese will become one of the official languages of Hong Kong, after the city is re-unified with China in 1997.

The report found little information on the language profile of Chinese in Hong Kong and will assume that the approximate 5 million Chinese living there speak Modern Standard Chinese as an L2 or L3.

9.1.4 Chinese in Other Countries

As mentioned elsewhere in the report, there have been large waves of emigration of Chinese to various countries all over the world. One may be able to argue that they have spread across the globe further than any other people. Table 89 below gives estimates of the number of Chinese speakers in a variety of countries.

Country	No. of Chinese speakers
Australia	200,000
Brunei	42,000
Cambodia	270,000
Canada	279,000
Christmas Islands	700
Japan	130,000
North Korea	40,000
Malaysia	1,630,000
Nauru	800
United States	760,000
Vietnam	1,170,000
Total	4,522,500

Table 89
Number of Chinese language speakers in non-Chinese speaking countries
(Source : Britannica World Data, 1991 p.759.)

9.2 Language and Trade

The nations of the Asian region have faced stiff competition for foreign investment and the establishment of high-tech industries. In the past, this investment and technology was usually negotiated in English. In this way, English was appropriated as an international trading language of sorts. If countries wanted to project themselves as advanced and/or sophisticated, they had to be able to negotiate in English. Simply put, being linguistically competent in English was often the key to top positions, particularly in trade and finance. To a large extent this remains true.

However, the profile of investment and trade in this region has changed significantly. The United States and United Kingdom have both reduced the amount of interest in these areas. Japan is now the number one financial player in the region and Taiwan, Singapore and Hong Kong are also major players. This no doubt will have effects on what languages are studied as second languages in the Asian region.

In general, though, this changing profile will do little to convince the English-speaking entrepreneur, who perceives English as the institutionalised international trading language unless it is set against the background of the increased international competitiveness. It seems logical that as markets become more competitive, particularly in the shrinking markets created by a world recession, marginal advantages become crucial. It is precisely in this marginal area that language competence can have its greatest impact. Not only in the purely linguistic sense but also in the understanding of the culture of the interlocutor as well as an awareness of the opportunities for trade that culture may offer. Dr Stephen FitzGerald interprets Asian literacy as *intellectual preparedness*, through the acquisition of knowledge and understanding of Asia and Asian languages, for Australia's integration into the Asian region (1990:20).

There is also a need to distinguish between the sorts of trade that Australia is involved in and the role this *intellectual preparedness* may play. The type of trade that Australia has been most successful in is that of a supplier of primary resources. Garnaut (1989: 78) suggests that this success may in part be explained by Australia's range of export commodities complementing Asia's (especially Japan's) import needs. In this way, Australia may be viewed as a somewhat passive exporter. If they want our goods we can supply them. The lack of an *intellectual preparedness* would therefore not play a significant role. However, this is not the case in other trade activities. If we also see trade as a marketing exercise, as an aggressively competitive activity, an *intellectual preparedness and flexibility* becomes an essential feature of the equation. Knowledge of, and flexibility with respect to other cultures are important skills which underline marketing activity. The type, range, packaging of and distribution of products for another culture is a complex and intricate practice that requires the skills of a professional. Familiarity with the language and culture of the Chinese world is essential if Australia is to recognise and capitalise on the full range of opportunities arising from developments in the region. Again, it must be remembered that Australian exporters rank Chinese second after Japanese among all non-English languages used in trade (Valverde 1990).

It has become commonplace in the 1980s and 1990s to regard Australia's major economic problem as a deteriorating balance of trade and a massive increase in foreign debt. Australia only accounts for 1 percent of total world trade (Stanley 1990:12) as well as a limited penetration and narrow range of export markets.

Stanley, Ingram and Chittick (1990), in their *The Relationship Between International Trade and Linguistic Competence* state that a central feature of Australia's failure to remain competitive in international trade is Australia's inability to develop an "export culture". They argue convincingly that this "export culture" "might be achieved within an educational frame of reference and with particular attention to the role of foreign language". In this way, linguistic competence should be seen as a *competitive advantage*. Education systems should therefore expand their activities in areas like the interface between curriculum and business, as well as business institutions accepting the expertise educational institutions have to offer.

Ironically, given the current pressures being placed on government and private spending, budgets themselves are continuously under threat and expansion viewed cautiously.

Many Asian economies have already constructed their own competitive advantages through aggressive trade diplomacy. Much of this diplomacy was, of course, carried out in English. Their successes in mastering foreign languages should be an example to us all. It is not the intention of this report, however, to reduce economic success to linguistic competence, but rather to state that, *if competitiveness counts, linguistic competence counts.*

9.3 Australia in World Trading Patterns

It is not intended here to give an in-depth or detailed analysis of Australia's current trading position, but rather to note past, current and possible future trends and highlight the importance of the Chinese-speaking nations within these trends.

It is hoped that an important outcome of this process will be the abolition of the traditional images that many Australians have of Chinese commerce, industry and culture. This image is continually reinforced by the media, where Chinese commerce and culture is often represented by bicycles, rice paddies, water buffalo and the economic stagnation of a traditional society ill at ease with modern technology. This is not, and possibly never was, totally correct. The trade and economic figures outlined below remain in sharp contrast to these popular images. The PRC did, in 1990, record a trade surplus of over eight billion US dollars. China's Special Economic Zones remain areas of dynamic growth in both institutional infrastructure and foreign investment. The PRC, Taiwan, Singapore and Hong Kong have since the early 1980s remained in the top 10 destinations for Australia's exports. The stock markets of Singapore, Taipei and Hong Kong are amongst the most active and resilient financial markets in the world. Furthermore, these cities now produce some of the most competitive and technologically sophisticated commodities in the international market.

However it is clear from the attitudinal survey data (Section 4.3) that many students do not perceive Chinese language as positively contributing to their future careers, as has been the case with Japanese language.

9.4 World Trading Patterns

The recent literature on international trade has consistently noted a number of trends in world trading patterns which have relevance for this report.

The enduring feature of the world economy since World War II has been its growing internationalisation. An integral feature of this internationalisation has been the rapid expansion of trade between nations. The Hughes Report notes that between 1960 and 1987 the amount of world trade grew at an average of 6 percent per annum. A number of Chinese-speaking nations were prominent in this expansion.

To support this rapid networking of national economies, international agencies such as the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank and GATT have provided structures within which trade could expand and flourish.

The growth of foreign trade was fastest in areas of value-added products, especially manufacturing. During the 1980s manufacture's share of world trade rose from 56 percent to 73 percent while mining fell from 29 percent to 13 percent. GATT has proved more effective in reducing impediments to international trade in these manufacturing areas than in the agricultural areas.

Against this background, Australia's economic performance has been limited by its failure to export. Australia only accounts for 1 percent of total world trade (Stanley 1990:12) as well as a limited penetration and narrow range of export markets

As traditional Australian export markets have looked elsewhere and/or declined in real economic terms, Australia has failed to successfully break into new ones. Rather, it has relied on its own domestic market and demand shrinking markets with its traditional trading partners.

Australia's manufactures during the 1980s remained relatively constant at 54 percent of Australia's exports. Furthermore, it has relied on traditional products rather than achieving a more diverse spread of goods to isolate it from the vagaries of the export prices for primary products. The Hughes Committee Report noted that the ratio of merchandise to GDP was lower than comparable countries 13.5 percent. The Hughes committee suggested that the ratio should be closer to 19 percent (quoted in Stanley 1990:12).

9.5 Australia and the Chinese-Speaking Countries; the Economic and Trading Relationship

Tables 89 and 90 outline in brief the economic performance of the Chinese-speaking counties and Australia's trading relationship with those countries. Garnaut(1989) stated that three of the most dynamic Asian economies, the PRC, Taiwan and Hong Kong, are Chinese-speaking. In addition 80 percent of Singapore's population speak Chinese. The economies of the PRC, Taiwan and Hong Kong amount to over $600 billion annually and, with an average annual growth of around 10 percent, are among the most rapidly expanding economies in the world. A 15 percent growth of rate in the non-state sector of the PRC economy has provided a significant stimulus to private consumption (CSAA National Strategy 1992:19). The worlds largest accumulation of foreign-exchange reserves in Taiwan has opened new opportunities for investment and trade.

Many of these countries have based their growing economies around export industries and over recent years seen their share of world trade increase dramatically. The opportunities for Australia to share in this growth through trade and investment are vast. Unfortunately, though these countries remain important for Australia, we have seen our share of their total trade decrease since 1980.

These countries have further market potential for the export of raw materials, processed food, services and a range of other technologies in the fields of design, engineering, telecommunications, transport and environmental management.

Almost 13.5 percent of Australia's total exports go to Chinese-speaking countries, only Japan offers a larger market for Australian goods. Of the five countries discussed here, four are currently in the top 10 destinations for Australian exports (see Table 90).

Tourism and service industries including education are a rapidly emerging source of foreign income for Australia. Already, tourism is the largest foreign-income earner among the service industries, and tourism from Asia is likely to comprise half of all tourism by the year 2000 (ALLP 1991:25). In 1992, Taiwan alone will provide 60,000 visitors to Australia (CSAA National Strategy 1992:19). Education services to overseas students injected $870 million into the Australian economy in 1990. Most of these students come from Asia, with the single largest source being Hong Kong (CSAA, National Strategy 1992:19)

	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983
PRC	0.74	1.49	2.91	2.76	2.03	3.49	3.40	4.21	3.68	2.91	3.64	2.12
Taiwan	1.17	1.05	1.16	1.12	1.10	1.32	1.85	1.95	1.95	2.19	2.35	2.91
Singapore	1.92	1.87	2.01	2.35	1.60	1.61	1.83	1.99	2.37	2.27	2.71	2.64
Hong Kong	1.59	1.41	1.22	1.11	1.23	1.36	1.99	1.88	1.52	1.79	1.91	1.86
Macau	0.07	0.07	0.06	0.09	0.06	0.08	0.11	0.04	0.13	0.04	-	-
Total	5.49	5.89	7.36	7.43	6.02	7.86	9.18	10.07	9.65	9.30	10.61	9.53
US	12.93	12.19	9.08	9.51	8.96	9.11	11.23	11.86	11.54	11.12	10.27	10.43
UK	9.79	8.19	5.55	4.25	4.58	4.16	3.89	4.35	4.76	3.42	4.28	5.50
Japan	29.09	33.01	29.51	30.53	34.55	33.64	30.77	29.93	27.02	28.50	26.70	28.25

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
PRC	2.69	3.92	4.71	4.02	2.60	2.65	2.53
Taiwan	2.80	3.07	3.34	3.34	3.53	3.67	3.53
Singapore	2.84	2.96	2.00	2.35	3.21	3.61	4.65
Hong Kong	3.00	2.50	2.30	3.76	5.28	3.37	2.56
Macau	0.40	0.60	0.40	0.70	0.70	1.0	0.20
Total	11.73	13.05	12.75	14.17	15.32	14.30	13.47
US	11.38	10.52	10.78	11.39	10.69	10.86	11.29
UK	3.53	3.33	3.66	4.29	3.56	3.60	3.56
Japan	26.70	27.90	26.85	25.46	27.04	26.64	26.43

Table 90
Percentage of Australia's Total Exports (1972-1991)
Source DFAT

	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983
PRC	1.26	1.10	0.87	0.91	1.00	1.04	0.96	0.98	1.16	1.26	1.19
Taiwan	1.62	1.81	1.37	1.92	2.17	2.35	2.63	2.71	2.83	2.89	3.30
Singapore	0.91	1.58	1.73	1.94	2.35	1.95	2.20	3.00	2.74	2.78	2.15
Hong Kong	2.27	2.47	2.34	2.64	2.42	2.47	2.37	2.23	2.20	2.26	2.25
Macau		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	6.06	6.96	6.96	7.41	7.94	7.81	8.16	8.92	8.93	9.19	8.89
US	22.47	20.78	19.89	20.54	20.73	22.30	22.99	21.83	23.12	21.71	21.90
UK	16.56	13.57	15.49	11.72	11.09	11.34	10.69	9.33	7.28	7.23	6.74
Japan	17.82	18.54	17.93	21,13	19.59	19.30	15.72	17.14	19.90	20.06	22.18

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
PRC	1.37	1.25	1.40	1.92	2.09	2.37	2.67
Taiwan	3.76	3.41	3.72	4.30	4.19	4.04	3.54
Singapore	2.33	2.31	2.10	2.08	2.28	2.46	2.38
Hong Kong	2.35	2.05	2.07	2.15	2.02	1.73	1.58
Macau	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	9.81	9.02	9.29	10.45	10.56	10.60	10.17
US	21.70	21.75	21.70	21.22	21.44	22.36	23.84
UK	6.53	7.11	7.36	7.22	7.46	6.79	6.94
Japan	22.48	23.40	22.37	19.70	20.11	20.31	18.79

Table 91
Percentage of Australia's Total Imports (1972-1991)
Source DFAT

	1972	1975	1980	1985	1990
PRC	22	8	6	5	10
Taiwan	16	19	15	7	6
Singapore	10	9	8	8	5
Hong Kong&Macau	11	10	18	9	9
UK	3	4	4	6	6
USA	2	2	2	2	2
Japan	1	1	1	1	1

Table 92
Ranking of Chinese markets as export destinations

	1973	1975	1980	1985	1990
PRC	14	16	15	15	8
Taiwan	10	14	9	6	6
Singapore	17	12	7	8	10
Hong Kong&Macau	7	8	11	10	14
UK	3	3	3	3	3
USA	2	2	2	2	2
Japan	1	1	1	1	1

Table 93
Ranking of Chinese markets as import sources
Source: DFAT

	Average annual % growth 1970-79	Average annual % growth 1979-83	Average annual % growth 1985-89
PRC	4.90	7.1*	11.60
Taiwan	8.20	6.2	9.99
Singapore	6.50	8.8*	6.00
Hong Kong	6.60	6.2*	8.90
Macau	-	-	17.70

Table 94
Average Annual Growth Rates
Source: Far Eastern Economic Review Year Books 1988-1991
**GNP*

	Factor	1987	1988	1989
PRC	GDP ($US)	295	354	413
	% Real Growth	9.3	11.2	13.5
	Per Capita income ($US)	234	283	371
Taiwan	GDP ($US)	91.33	128.8	146.86
	%Real Growth	11.6	7.34	7.57
	Per Capita Income ($US)	4573	5520	6889
Singapore	GDP ($US)	19.04	24.5	29.19
	% Real Growth	8.8	11.0	9.2
	Per Capita Income	7325	8162	10810
Hong Kong	GDP ($US)	46.55	54.78	NDA
	% Real Growth	13.50	7.30	2.30
	Per Capita Income	8292	9643	10916
Macau	GDP ($US)	2.25	2.6	3.08
	% Real Growth	12.4	16.16	5.7
	Per Capita Income ($US)	5242	5970	6877

Table 95
Economic performance.
Source: Far Eastern Economic Review Year Books 1988-1991

9.5.1 People's Republic of China

China's economy since the 1950s has been a predominantly centralised one. In a number of ways, this resulted by the mid-1970s in a number of serious imbalances. Quantity production targets meant that quality was ignored. Material incentives and rural collectivisation meant decreased industrial and agricultural output. Without any sophisticated instruments of demand, management economic policy was often irrational (Garnaut 1989:110).

In 1979, the reform of the agricultural sector was begun and by 1984 had extended to the rest of the economy. To some extent the market mechanism was allowed to function and, importantly there was a decentralisation of economic decision-making both to the province and the enterprise level.

Since 1979 under the policies of the four modernisations and the open door, the Chinese economy has fundamentally changed. During the 1980s, the PRC had one of the fastest growing economies in the world. Its GNP increased at an average rate of 9.3 percent per annum and was particularly strong in the years 1985-1989 where it averaged 11.6 percent. Over the same period, China's trade with the rest of the world increased by a massive 12 percent per annum and exports as a share of GNP rose from 7 percent to 17 percent.

Garnaut suggests that this powerful growth momentum was fuelled by high savings and investment as well as an explosion of the use of productive technology and new approaches to managements (1989:110). In fact growth during this period expanded so fast that macro-economic policy was periodically threatened. Garnaut also describes a number of difficulties that may undermine China's economic performance in the future.

He argues that over the next few years three interrelated factors - macro-economic crisis inherent in the era of reform, the strong pressure for political liberalisation and the lack of any smooth mechanism for the transfer of power from Deng Xiaoping (and his cohorts) to the new brigade of economic managers.

Garnaut is not sympathetic to the mix of market and centralised economic decision making and there is good evidence to support his claims. State enterprises for instance have not grown anywhere as fast as the private sector, but still absorb large amounts of investment. However, although growth since the Garnaut report has been slower than in previous years it is still at the more than reasonable rate of 5 percent percent and increases in foreign reserves have been extraordinary.

In 1990 China recorded a trade surplus of $US8.7 billion compared with a deficit the year before of $US6.6 billion. More than likely, 1991 will return a trade surplus with the first two quarters returning positive results of $US2.25 billion and $US1.2 billion (DFAT 1991a:15).

Although Australia has traded with the PRC since 1949 the commencement of the wheat trade in 1960 elevated China to the status of an important customer for Australia's export goods (DFAT 1991a:15).

Trade began to grow and diversify after diplomatic relations were established by the Whitlam government in 1972. Apart from wheat and wool, Australia's major exports to China now include iron ore, barley, machinery and transport equipment, textile yarn, coal, paper and paper board, aluminium and aluminium alloys, chemicals and, for the first time in 1990, crude petroleum.

In 1972 the PRC received 0.74 percent of Australia's total exports. This rose to a high of 4.71 percent in 1986 and in 1990 was at 2.53 percent. Imports from China have risen from 1.26 percent in 1973 to 2.67 percent in 1990. The total bilateral trade in 1990 was $2.6 billion and China is now Australia's ninth largest trading partner.

In 1990, Australian imports from China increased by 8.44 percent, while Australia's exports to China increased by 7.1 percent. Australia's imports from China increased particularly in the areas of clothing (18 percent), footwear (33 percent), petroleum products (152 percent), perambulators, toys, games and sporting goods (9 percent) (DFAT 1991a:52). While Australian exports of wool were down on previous years, there was healthy growth in the other commodities including grains, coal, machinery, transport and sugar.

Although Garnaut was somewhat pessimistic about the effects of China's partial economic reforms, he believes the government can look forward to successes in the areas of economic growth for the next decade and this has been borne out by the 1990 and 1991 statistics.

9.5.2 Republic of Singapore

Singapore is the second most prosperous country in Asia with a per capita income of $US 11,810 as at November 1991 (see Table 95). Regarded as one of the four mini dragons or newly industrialising economies, it has based its economic strategy on international trade, including its entrepot role for the region, foreign investment and, more recently, service industries such as banking and finance, transport and communications.

Its economy is particularly dependent on trade, with a foreign trade valued at more than three times GDP and domestic exports equal to 1.5 times GDP (DFAT 1991c:14). Over recent years, Singapore has had perhaps the highest savings ratio in the world, in excess of 40 percent GDP and its foreign reserves, and therefore its buying potential has risen to over US$21 billion at the end of 1990.

Although commercial and industrial development has been and still is, focused on export-oriented manufacture, Singapore has increasingly become a regional centre for high technology as well as business, medical and financial services. Manufacturing industries have been encouraged to relocate off-shore as part of the government's development policies (DFAT 1991c:15).

In 1990 financial and business services contributed 32.8 percent (3.4 percent out of a possible 8.3 percent growth in GDP), manufacturing 29.1 percent, commerce 17 percent and transport and communications 13.1 percent. The entire primary production in Singapore for the same year amounted to just 0.004 percent.

Growth in GDP has, in the years 1988 to 1990, been impressive, with 10.9 percent, 9.2 percent and 8.3 percent respectively for those years

Because of its dependence on trade, it has been argued that Singapore would be vulnerable to world recession or other crises like the Gulf War. There had been fears that, during the Gulf War, Singapore would become uncompetitive. Indeed, tourism did drop by 30 percent, therefore strongly affecting retailing, a most important activity on the island. However, the petroleum industry benefited from increased demand from Singapore's refining capacity and growth for 1991 over 1990 is predicted to be between 3 percent and 6 percent. The current indicators reveal that the economy is now producing at above that figure.

The Singapore economy is therefore possibly more resilient than was first thought. The diversification of the economic base of labour-intensive manufacturing goods into well-defined areas of regional expertise has and will make Singapore less vulnerable to fluctuations in the international economic milieu. In this way, Singapore can look forward to a period of sustained moderate growth associated with minimal unemployment, low interest rates and a low to moderate rate of inflation (DFAT 1991c:17).

This augers well for the continued close economic and strategic relations that Australia now shares with Singapore. Singapore is Australia's third largest market in Asia (after Japan and South Korea) and fifth largest overall

9.5.3 Hong Kong

Hong Kong is a major regional and industrial resources centre. Like Singapore, its strategic geographic location has been of significant economic benefit. It is positioned in the northeast Asian region, close to the economically active sectors of China, and to Japan, South Korea and Taiwan as well as the growing economies of ASEAN.

Hong Kong's economy grew rapidly in the 1980s with its GDP averaging 8 percent over the years 1980 to 1988 (Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan section, DFAT henceforth HKMT 1991:10) and 8.9 percent for the years 1985 to 1989. Again like Singapore, much of this growth can be attributed to export. Hong Kong is the world's twelfth largest trading entity, accounting for 2.2 percent of all world trade. Export grew at an average annual rate of 14 percent over the period 1980 to 1988, with particularly strong growth in the clothing, textile, electrical goods and photographic equipment industries. Merchandise exports were valued at 245 percent of GDP in 1990.

Hong Kong benefits greatly from its role as an entrepot for trade between China and third-party countries.

Hong Kong has developed a highly developed financial service sector which has extensive investment in Asia. Its foreign exchange market is the sixth largest in the world and Hong Kong is a major centre for the intermediation of international money flows. The Hong Kong and PRC economies are becoming increasingly interdependent. They are each other's most important trading partner and Hong Kong is the source of 70 percent of China's foreign investment. The PRC is also a major investor in Hong Kong. Many Hong Kong enterprises have relocated their factories into the Shenzhen special economic zone.

In 1990 growth was indeed slower but still at the more than acceptable rate of 5 percent for real GNP. In many ways this growth was more manageable than the growth rates of the 1980s. Real national incomes rose by 3.8 percent, similar to the rate of growth achieved in 1989, but well below the double digit figures of the 1980s.

The real gross value of industrial output rose by 6 percent over 1989. Most of the impetus for the growth came from the non-state sector. Output from state-owned enterprises grew by only 2.9 percent, while collective and rural output grew by 6.9 and 12.5 percent respectively. In the first half of 1991, it increased at a rate of 13.4 percent compared with the same period in 1989.

Hong Kong, over recent years, has increased in importance as a market for Australian products, improving its ranking from 11th in 1972 to 9th in 1990

9.5.4 Taiwan

With exports valued at A$1,801 million, Taiwan was Australia's seventh-largest export market in 1990. Principal export items were coal (A$365 million), aluminium (A$262 million), meat (A$131 million), wool (A$120 million, iron ore (A$117 million), and gold (A$90 million). In 1990, Australia's imports from Taiwan were valued at A$1,764 million, making Taiwan Australia's sixth-largest source of imports in that year (HKMT 1991:3).

Australia-Taiwan trade is also important from Taiwan's perspective. Australia, in 1990, was Taiwan's sixth-largest trading partner, behind only the USA, Hong Kong, Germany and Singapore. Indeed, in the same year, Australia was Taiwan's forth most important source of imports. In the previous year, Australia was the number one supplier of six major commodities - aluminium, wool, iron ore, beef, dairy products and barley. While Australia is also a significant market for Taiwan's electronic and electrical equipment, textiles, chemicals and other light industrial products (HKMT 1991:3).

Trade between the two countries received a strong boost in late 1991 when direct air services were established by a completely owned subsidiary of Qantas.

The two specialised areas of tourism and education show great potential for increased commercial and cultural relations between the two countries. (These areas, of course, demand person to person interaction and therefore the development of good language skills.) The number of Taiwanese tourists visiting Australia has grown strongly and, in 1989-90, exceeded 22,000, an increase of almost 100 percent over the 1987-88 figure (HKMT 1991:6). The Australian Government has already recognised that Taiwan is potentially a large market for Australian educational services, including short-term language training and tertiary courses. The number of student visas issued has increased from 482 in 1987-88 to 1,399 in 1990-91, after having reached 1,630 in 1989-90 (HKMT 1991:7).

To date, investment flows between Australia and Taiwan have been modest. The level of Australian investment in Taiwan was only A$133 million at 30 June 1990. Taiwan's investment in Australia, at the same time was A$176 million (Australian Bureau of Statistics figures quoted in HKMT 1991:5). Given Taiwan's large amount of domestic savings and obvious enthusiasm for foreign investment opportunities, there are good prospects for attracting sizable investments to Australia.

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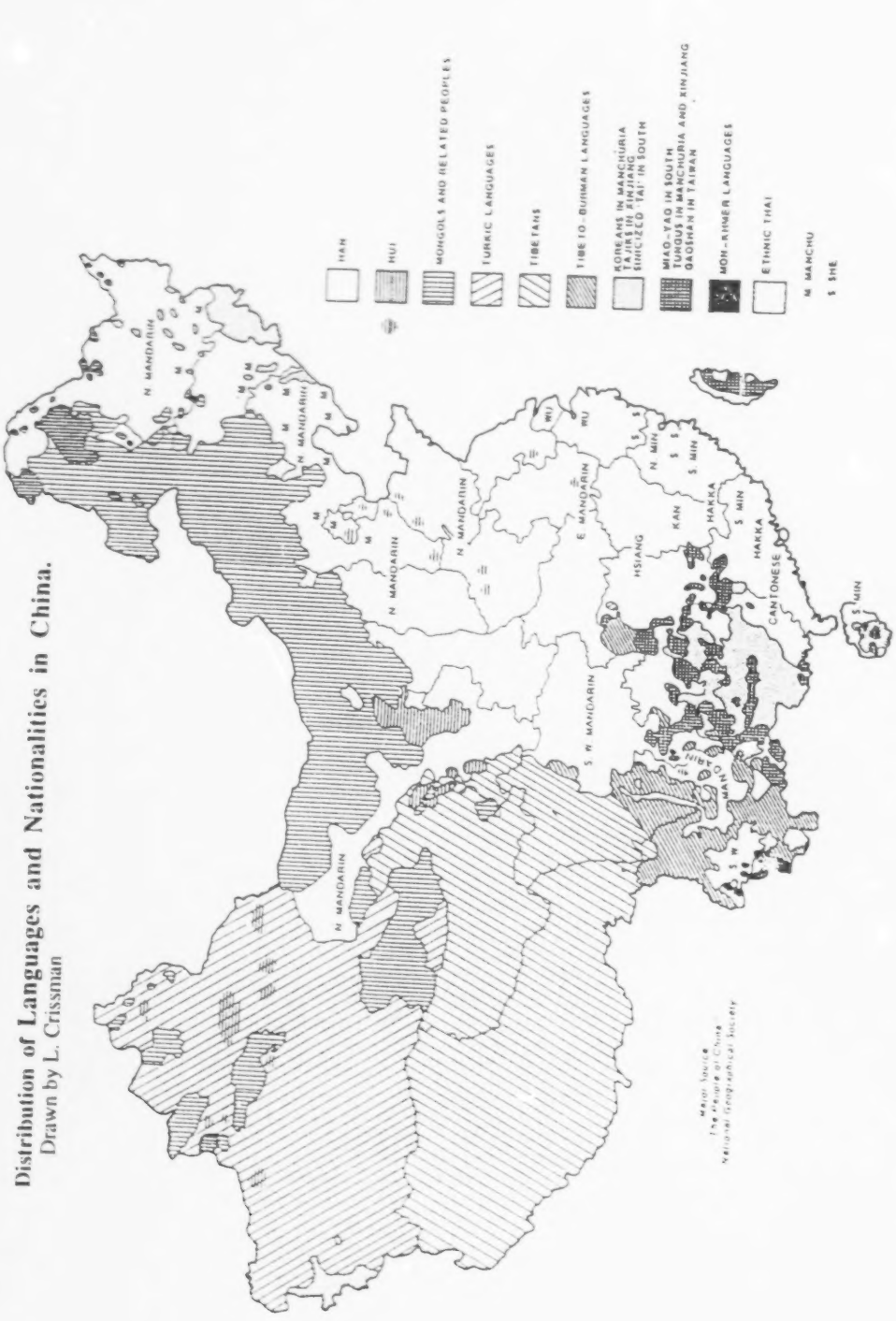
Appendix B Language Map of China



Distribution of Languages and Nationalities in China.
Drawn by L. Crissman

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Appendix C Gender Breakdown of Primary and Secondary Statistics

Please note that there was no data at all on the gender of Chinese language students for Tasmania and the Northern Territory.
NDA=No Data Available
NGD=No Gender Data Available.
Percentages have been rounded off to the nearest whole number.

Queensland

Year	Year Group	Government	Independent	Catholic
1988	p	NDA	NDA	0:0
	8-10	52:48	NDA	0:0
	11-12	0:0	NDA	0:0
1989	p	NDA	NGD	0:0
	8-10	47:53	82:18	100:0
	11-12	40:60	92:08	0:0
1990	p	NDA	NGD	NGD
	8-10	49:51	91:09	100:0
	11-12	36:64	94:06	0:0
1991	p	NGD	NGD	NDA
	8-10	50:50	77:23	100:0
	11-12	42:58	94:6	0:0

Table A1
Male to female ration for Queensland schools

South Australia

Year	Year Group	Government	Independent	Catholic
1988	p	NGD	48:52	NDA
	7-10		31:69	
	11-12		100:00	
Total		44:56		
1989	p	NGD	49:51	NDA
	7-10		100:00	
	11-12		72:28	
	Total		64:36	
1990	p	NGD	64:36	NDA
	7-10		65:35	
	11-12		72:28	
	Total		65:35	
1991	p	NGD	52:48	NDA
	7-10		49:51	
	11-12		70:30	
	Total		53:47	

Table A2
Male to female ration for South Australian schools

Victoria

Year	Year Group	Government	Independent	Catholic
1988	p	NDA	54:46	NGD
	7-10		64:36	
	11-12		53:47	
	Total		61:39	
1989	p	NDA	NDA	NGD
	7-10	43:57		00:00
	11-12	50:50		00:00
1990	p	NDA	66:34	NGD
	7-10		55:45	00:00
	11-12		55:45	00:00
	Total		59:41	
1991	p	59:41	68:32	NDA
	7-10	41:39	56:44	
	11-12	37:63	56:44	
Total		52:48	60:40	

Table A3
Male to female ration for Victorian schools

Western Australia

Year	Year Group	Government	Independent	Catholic
1990	p	NGD	NDA	47:53
	7-10			55:45
	11-12			00:00
	Total			48:52
1991	p	NGD	NGD	47:53
	7-10			43:57
	11-12			44:56
	Total			47:53

Table A4
Male to female ration for Western Australian schools

Australian Capital Territory

Year	Year Group	Government	Independent	Catholic
1989	p	47:53	00:00	00:00
	7-10	48:52	50:50	00:00
	11-12	54:46	100:00	00:00
	Total	49:51	58:42	
1990	p	59:41	00:00	00:00
	7-10	48:52	100:00	
	11-12	54:46	100:00	
	Total	57:43	100:00	
1991	p	54:46	00:00	00:00
	7-10	34:66	100:00	
	11-12	37:63	100:00	
	Total	46:54	100:00	

Table A5
Male to female ration for ACT schools

Appendix D Questionnaire

THE NATIONAL LANGUAGES & LITERACY INSTITUTE OF AUSTRALIA

KEY LANGUAGES PROJECT

LANGUAGE STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE

For information contact Athol Yates, National Language and Literacy Institute of Australia. 112 Wellington Parade, East Melbourne Vic 3002
Tel: (03) 416 2422 Fax (03) 416 0231

Name of School _____
State:
Type of school: [ ] State
[ ] Catholic
[ ] Independent

Part A: Student Profile

1. Sex [ ] Male [ ] Female

2. If you were not born in Australia, at what age did you come to Australia? _____

From which country did you come? _____

3. What level of education did your parents reach? *(Tick only one box for each parent)*

	Father	Mother
Primary	[ ]	[ ]
Post primary	[ ]	[ ]
Year 12	[ ]	[ ]
Undergraduate degree	[ ]	[ ]
Post graduate degree	[ ]	[ ]
Other	[ ]	[ ]

Please specify
Mother: _____
Father: _____

Part B: Language background

4. Which language other than English is used at home? *(Tick only one box)*

[ ] French [ ] Spanish
[ ] German [ ] Italian
[ ] Indonesian [ ] An Italian dialect
[ ] Malay [ ] Arabic
[ ] Mandarin Chinese [ ] Japanese
[ ] Cantonese [ ] Other language
[ ] Other Chinese dialect Please specify _____
Please specify _____ [ ] English only

5. Do you speak this language with: *(You can tick more than one box)*

❒ Mother ❒ Grandparents
❒ Father ❒ Other relatives
❒ Brothers and sisters ❒ People from your parents' country
❒ Other Please specify _____

6. What subjects are you studying at school this year?

_____
_____
_____

7. To which level do you intend to study? *(Tick only one box)*

[ ] Year 11
[ ] Year 12
[ ] TAFE
[ ] Tertiary institution

Part C: Language study at school

All of the following questions are about languages other than English, but do not refer to Latin.

8. Did you study a language at school (including Saturday School or Ethnic School) when you were in Year 10?

[ ] Yes [ ] No

(If you answered "No", this is the last question for you.)

9. Which language or languages did you study at Year 10?

Language 1: (Specify)_____

Language 2: (Specify)_____

(Questions 10 to 13 will be about the language you named as Language 1, questions 14 to 17 will be about the language you named as Language 2.)

10. If you discontinued Language 1 after Year 10, which of the following factors contributed to your decision?

[ ] I did not wish to continue. *(You can tick more than one box)*

This was because

- ❒ I do not like languages
- ❒ There were too many native speakers in the class
- ❒ The subject was too difficult
- ❒ My friends did not take this language
- ❒ I did not like the teacher
- ❒ Other reasons

Please specify_____
_____

[ ] I would have liked to continue, however ... *(You can tick more than one box)*

- ❒ The language was not available
- ❒ I considered other subjects more important for my overall study plan
- ❒ There were time table clashes with other subjects
- ❒ Other reasons

Please specify_____
_____

11. If you are studying Language 1 this year, how important were the following factors for your decision to continue? Rate your answers on a scale from 1 = "not important" to 5 = "very important".

Ethnic origin and /or religion 1__2__3__4__5
not important very important

Contact with the ethnic community in Australia which speaks Language 1 1__2__3__4__5
not important very important

Other contact with the country where the language is spoken (past travel, friends, parents' work, etc.)
1__2__3__4__5
not important very important

I thought this would be an easy subject for me. 1__2__3__4__5
not important very important

I had good marks in the past. 1__2__3__4__5
not important very important

I like studying languages. 1__2__3__4__5
not important very important

I like studying about the culture and society of the country where the language is spoken.
1__2__3__4__5
not important very important

I particularly like the teacher. 1__2__3__4__5
not important very important

I do not have definite plans for the future but I feel the language would enhance my future career prospects.
1__2__3__4__5
not important very important

I have definite plans to work in an area of employment where the language is used. 1__2__3__4__5
not important very important

I want to travel or live in the country. 1__2__3__4__5
not important very important

I have been advised to continue by my family. 1__2__3__4__5
not important very important

I have been advised to continue by my teachers. 1__2__3__4__5
not important very important

One or more of my friends was taking the subject. 1__2__3__4__5
not important very important

Although I had no strong desire to continue, other subjects were even less attractive. 1__2__3__4__5
not important very important

Other factors
Please specify: _____

12. To which level do you intend to study Language 1? *(Tick only one box)*

[ ] Year 11
[ ] Year 12
[ ] TAFE
[ ] Tertiary institution

13. How do you rate your ability to use Language 1?

	Poor	Good	Very Good	Fluent
Speaking	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Listening comprehension	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Writing	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Reading	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

If the language has a different script from English, how do you find using the writing system.

1 2 3 4 5
very easy very difficult

The following questions will be answered by students who studied two languages (not including Latin) in Year 10.

14. If you discontinued Language 2 after Year 10, which of the following factors contributed to your decision?

[ ] I did not wish to continue. *(You can tick more than one box)*

This was because

- ❒ I do not like languages
- ❒ There were too many native speakers in the class
- ❒ The subject was too difficult
- ❒ My friends did not take this language
- ❒ I did not like the teacher
- ❒ Other reasons

Please specify _____

_____

[ ] I would have liked to continue, however ... *(You can tick more than one box)*

- ❒ The language was not available
- ❒ I considered other subjects more important for my overall study plan.
- ❒ There were time table clashes with other subjects
- ❒ Other reasons

Please specify _____

_____

15. If you are studying Language 2 this year, how important were the following factors for your decision to continue? Rate your answers on a scale from 1 = "not important" to 5 = "very important".

Ethnic origin and /or religion	1__2__3__4__5 not important very important
Contact with the ethnic community in Australia which speaks Language 2	1__2__3__4__5 not important very important
Other contact with the country where the language is spoken (past travel, friends, parents' work, etc.)	1__2__3__4__5 not important very important
I thought this would be an easy subject for me	1__2__3__4__5 not important very important
I had good marks in the past	1__2__3__4__5 not important very important
I like studying languages	1__2__3__4__5 not important very important
I like studying about the culture and society of the country where the language is spoken.	1__2__3__4__5 not important very important
I particularly like the teacher.	1__2__3__4__5 not important very important
I do not have definite plans for the future but I feel the language would enhance my future career prospects.	1__2__3__4__5 not important very important
I have definite plans to work in an area of employment where the language is used.	1__2__3__4__5 not important very important
I want to travel or live in the country.	1__2__3__4__5 not important very important
I have been advised to continue by my family.	1__2__3__4__5 not important very important
I have been advised to continue by my teachers.	1__2__3__4__5 not important very important
One or more of my friends was taking the subject.	1__2__3__4__5 not important very important
Although I had no strong desire to continue, other subjects were even less attractive.	1__2__3__4__5 not important very important

Other factors
Please specify: _____

16. To which level do you intend to study Language 2? *(Tick only one box)*

[ ] Year 11
[ ] Year 12
[ ] TAFE
[ ] Tertiary institution

17. How do you rate your ability to use Language 2?

	Poor	Good	Good	Very Fluent
Speaking	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Listening comprehension	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Writing	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Reading	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

If the language has a different script from English, how do you find using the writing system.

1__2__3__4__5
very easy very difficult

End of questionnaire **Thank you for your cooperation.**

THE NATIONAL LANGUAGES & LITERACY INSTITUTE OF AUSTRALIA

Language & Literacy Publications

Unlocking Australia's Language Potential: Profiles of 9 Key Languages in Australia

Volume 1: Arabic
Volume 2: Chinese
Volume 3: French
Volume 4: German
Volume 5: Indonesian/Malay
Volume 6: Italian
Volume 7: Japanese
Volume 8: Modern Greek
Volume 9: Spanish
Summary Volume

The 9 Language Profiles and Summary Volume examine the Australian situation of the 9 languages of Wider Teaching (as identified by the National Policy on Languages) and make recommendations to enhance the learning of these languages in Australia. The reports will be particularly useful for applied linguists, curriculum developers and language policy makers.

A Guide to Adult Language Other Than English Courses in Australia 1993
Have you ever wanted to learn a language other than English but don't know where to start? This book contains comprehensive information on language courses in Australia including addresses, levels, texts, teachers and fees.

The Australian Second Language Learning Program
A detailed description of projects and materials produce by projects funded under the Australian Second Language Learning Program between 1988 and 1992. ASLLP is a Commonwealth initiative designed to stimulate language studies in Australian schools.

Languages at the Crossroads
Consists of two volumes; the Report and Guide to the Report. The Report provides a detailed examination of policy and practical situation of language teaching in Australia. It also explores demand, supply, recruitment, deployment, professional development and job satisfaction of teachers. The Guide provides selected elements and highlights of the Report.

Language and Language Education Vol 1, No 1. & Vol 2, No 1.
Working papers of the NLLIA. Vol 1, No 1 includes articles on inter-cultural communication and rapid profiling. Vol 2, No 1 will be of particular interest to those involved with language policy and practice in schools.

The Relationship Between International Trade and Linguistic Competence
Department of Employment, Education and Training.

Language is Good Business
Proceedings of the conference "The Role of Languages in Australia's Economic Future".

Room For Two: A Study of Bilingual Education at Bayswater South Primary School
By Sue Fernandez. The extensive experience gained from managing the German bilingual program at Bayswater South Primary School is of relevance to all schools that have or are considering a language program.

Review of National Aboriginal Languages Program AACLAME Occasional Paper No 5.

Bilingualism and Bilingual Education NLLIA Occasional Paper No 2.

Interpreting Translating and Language Policy NLLIA Occasional Paper No 3 by Uldis Ozolins.

Vernacular Languages in South Pacific Education
Report on a workshop held at the Pacific Languages Unit of the University of the South Pacific Port Vila, Vanuatu.

Publications can be ordered from: NLLiA, Level 3, 112 Wellington Parade, East Melbourne Vic 3002.
Tel: 03 416 2422 Fax: 03 416 0231

Volume 2: Chinese

Among the world's rapidly expanding economies, the Chinese-speaking People's Republic of China, Taiwan, Hong Kong and Singapore stand out prominently. In addition, China is the most populous country in the world and the Chinese community in Australia is substantial and growing. This Profile elaborates on these and other reasons why it is important for Australians to know Chinese.

It is only since the late 1980s that the study of Chinese has taken off in Australian schools at primary and secondary level. The Profile examines the number of students studying Chinese, their ethnic background, gender and the type of school they attend. It also comments on the various teaching materials for Chinese which have been developed in Australia and explores the motivation of those continuing or discontinuing the learning of Chinese in Australia.

In addition, the Profile examines non-school based language learning opportunities.

A series of recommendations are also presented which are useful for the future of Chinese-language teaching in Australia. The Profile not only presents valuable information and analysis on the situation with Chinese-language teaching and learning in Australia at all levels, but also gives a blueprint for future aims and directions in this area.

Profiles of 9 Languages of Wider Teaching

The Nine Languages

The nine languages featured in these profile studies were categorised as Languages of Wider Teaching. The nine languages are: Arabic, Modern Standard Chinese, French, German, Modern Greek, Indonesian/Malay, Italian, Japanese and Spanish.

These languages represent the vast bulk of the second language learning effort in Australian education. As such, these languages consume the greatest proportion of the resources devoted to the teaching of second languages in this country and will do so for several years to come. These nine were selected for reasons of domestic importance, such as community bilingualism and equal educational opportunities for minority language speakers, and international importance, such as economic and political significance.

Background

The nine languages were designated Languages of Wider Teaching by the 1987 National Policy on Languages. Resources were provided to promote the teaching of these languages and in early 1990, the Australian Advisory Council on Languages and Multicultural Education, which was charged with the responsibility for the implementation of the National Policy on Languages, decided to review its progress since 1987. These 9 languages have now been incorporated into the 14 Priority Languages of the Australian Language and Literacy Policy expanding the priority list to include Aboriginal languages, Korean, Russian, Thai and Vietnamese.

The Profiles

The 9 Profiles represent more than a review of the state of play of these languages. The studies promise to bring about a more precise and language-specific form of planning for the teaching and learning of languages in Australia and therefore could well represent a more mature phase in policy making itself. In recent years, language policies have made only generic statements about individual languages or groups of languages. Since there is now a high level of consensus across Australia about the importance of language study, these Profiles will shift the focus to particular issues that affect individual languages.

Who Will Use These Profiles?

These Profiles will be invaluable to all people involved in language and business. Specifically, users will include language policy makers and planners, teachers, lecturers, the media, business associations and researchers.

Uses

The Profiles will be used for planning school and higher education programs, curriculum writing, research, estimating needs in interpreting and translating, and estimating the needs of business to target overseas markets. They will be of continuing value as a stocktake of the 9 studied languages but also of value to the methodology of profiling. The NLLIA intends to study other languages in this same way.